DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 199 854 EA 013 355

TITLE	Core Curriculum in Preventing and Reducing School Violence and Vandalism. Course 7: The Community as a Problem-Solving Resource. Participant Guide and Reference Notebook.
INSTITUTION	Center for Human Services, Washington, D.C.; National School Resource Network, Washington, D.C.
SPONS AGENCY	Department of Justice, Washington, D.C. Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention.
PUB DATE	Jan 80
GRANT	OJJDP-79JS-AX-0019
NOTE	151p.; Some pages may be marginally legible due to broken print of original document. For related documents, see EA 013 348-354.
AVAILABLE FROM	National School Resource Network, 5530 Wisconsin Ave., NW, Washington, DC 20015 (free).
EDRS PRICE	MF01/PC07 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS	Agency Cooperation; Community Role; *Core Curriculum; Elementary Secondary Education; Information Sources; Juvenile Courts; *Learning Modules; Parent School Relationship; *Prevention; Problem Solving; School Business Relationship; *School Community Relationship; *School Vandalism; *Violence; Volunteers; Worksheets; Workshops

ABSTRACT

This guide, intended for participants in the seventh and concluding course of the National School Resource Network Core Curriculum, contains an activity/content summary for each module of the course, worksheets, and background materials. In this course a rationale for community involvement is presented, along with specific approaches for increasing school-community linkage. Use of parents and volunteers, the criminal justice community, and community agencies, businesses, and organizations is stressed. Interagency cooperation is also discussed. (Author/MLF)

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National School
Resource Network

Core Curriculum In Preventing and Reducing School Violence and Vandalism

Course 7

The Community as a Problem-Solving Resource

Participant Guide and Reference Notebook

January 1980

Prepared by
Center for Human Services
Washington, D.C.

EA 013 355

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Prepared under Grant No. 79JS-AX-0019 from the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention, Law Enforcement Assistance Administration, U.S. Department of Justice.

Points of view or opinions in this document are those of the authors and do not necessarily represent the official position or policies of the U.S. Department of Justice.

Table of Contents

Course 7

THE COMMUNITY AS A PROBLEM-SOLVING RESOURCE

Page

About the NSRN Core Curriculum i

About the Course 1

Module 7.1; 7.2: School-Community Links (Combined Session)

Course Agenda by Module 3
About the Module 5

Module 7.1: Role of the Community

Course Agenda by Module 7
About the Module 9
Worksheet 7.1.1: School-Community Relationships 11
7.1.2: Rate Your Own School 13
Background 7.1.1: Workshop Content Summary: "The Role of the Community" 15
Resource R.7.1.2: Community Schools 31

Module 7.2: Reaching and Involving the Community

Course Agenda by Module 37
About the Module 39
Worksheet 7.2.1: Model for Improving School-Community Linkages . 41
7.2.2: Community Contact Matrix 43
7.2.3: Organizational Rules--Community/School Cooperation 51

Module 7.3: School/Community Links: Parents and Volunteers

Course Agenda by Module 55
About the Module 57
Worksheet 7.3.1: Major Obstacles to Parent-Volunteer Involvement. 59
Background 7.3.1: Written Synopses of Four Effective Parent/Volunteer Programs 61
7.3.2: Summary of Methods/Procedures for Organizing and Maintaining a School-based Volunteer Program 71
7.3.3: Techniques for Overcoming Obstacles 75

Table of Contents

Course 7
Page Two

Page

Module 7.4: Winning Agency/Business Support

Course Agenda by Module 77
About the Module 79
Worksheet 7.4.1: Case I 81
7.4.2: Case II 83
Background 7.4.1: "Cooperation with the Community: Agencies, Businesses, and Organizations" 85
7.4.2: "Background of Interagency Coordination: A Working Paper" 97
7.4.3: Oakland's Adopt-A-School Program 113
7.4.4: Resistance to Change 121

Module 7.5: School/Community Links: The Juvenile Justice System

Course Agenda by Module 123
About the Module 125
Worksheet 7.5.1: Problem/Issue Identification 127
7.5.2: Strategy Identification 129
7.5.3: Identification of Organizational Consequences . 131
Background 7.5.1: Juvenile Justice Process 133
7.5.2: Juvenile Justice Glossary 135
7.5.3: Summary of Course Lecture 139
Resource R.7.5.4: Elements of a School-Police Liaison Officer Program 147
Bibliography: Juvenile Justice System 155

Audiovisual Reference Materials 157

Acknowledgements 165

ABOUT THE CORE CURRICULUM
ON PREVENTING/REDUCING SCHOOL
VIOLENCE AND VANDALISM

THE NATIONAL SCHOOL RESOURCE NETWORK APPROACH

The National School Resource Network (NSRN) was established under a grant from the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration, Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention, as a resource to schools troubled by crime, violence, vandalism and disruption. The network provides nationwide training events, technical assistance, and information dissemination to assist schools in preventing and reducing these problems. The focus of all Network activities is on the collection, sharing, and dissemination of resources--most particularly the ideas and strategies that schools and communities have tried.

A National Center, managed by the Center for Human Services and based in Washington, D.C., and Regional Centers in Boston, Massachusetts; Atlanta, Georgia; Chicago, Illinois; and San Rafael, California, will carry out the mandates for the Network. Also participating in the Network are 34 national organizations which form an active consortium to enhance service and delivery efforts.

THE CORE CURRICULUM

The Core Curriculum includes seven courses designed for delivery either in a comprehensive 5-day workshop incorporating all the courses or in separate special presentations. The seven courses are as follows:

Course 1: Putting It All Together and Taking It Home

This course provides an overview of a planning and evaluation process that participants can apply in implementing ideas and strategies in their own schools and communities. The course also allows participants the opportunity to reflect on workshop content and select from among the ideas and strategies presented those which best meet their schools' needs.

Course 2: Discipline

This course covers a range of issues and practices surrounding the development and implementation of an effective school discipline program. The focus will be on clarifying reasons for discipline, building conceptual frameworks for understanding behavior problems, describing policy considerations, and providing specific examples of programs and strategies.

Course 3: School Climate

The purpose of the course is to introduce a conceptual overview and definition of "school climate" with the goal of effecting positive change. The focus is on ways of improving school climate without administrative or community action. The course first defines school climate, and then discusses ways to assess and improve it. These include formal and informal assessment, improvement of interpersonal relations, stress reduction and management, student involvement in change, and law-related education as a relevant curriculum approach.

Course 4: Interpersonal Relations

The goal of the course is to introduce approaches and resources to identify, manage, reduce, resolve and prevent crisis and conflict in schools. There is an underlying assumption that hostile incidents and disruptive behavior are expressions of deep hurt, frustration, confusion, anger and misunderstanding. Specific attention will be given to crisis and conflict intervention and management, gang problems, problems of victims, and intercultural relations.

Course 5: Security

This course is designed to address a full range of preventive measures used to improve the security of the school both during and after school hours. It will provide a variety of alternative approaches to school security which will enhance schools' ability to improve the safety and security of the people and property. Special attention will be given to an overview of security problems, use of non-security staff to prevent problems, physical plant security, and design and upgrading of security programs.

Course 6: Environment

The course on environment provides guidance to school staff on ways to change school environments and make them safer. A full range of physical design strategies that can be implemented in schools is presented. Many of the strategies can be applied by school personnel and students. An assessment checklist will allow school personnel to identify environmental problems.

Course 7: The Community as a Problem Solving Resource

Community involvement in the school can help the schools greatly in solving problems of violence and vandalism. In this course a rationale for community involvement is presented, along with specific approaches for increasing school-community linkage. Use of parents and volunteers, the criminal justice community, and community agencies, businesses, and organizations are stressed. Interagency cooperation is also discussed.

About the Course

Course 7 - The Community as a Problem Solving Resource

Background and Rationale

The problems facing today's schools seem overwhelming: violence and vandalism, discipline problems, stress, alienation of students and staff. The school's job of educating children and at the same time preventing problems becomes almost impossible when the school is viewed as a separate entity, isolated from the community. The problems that face schools today will be merely contained, not prevented, if schools act alone. Problems can be solved where there is interaction, communication, and involvement between the community and the school. The school's role in the community is central. To remain isolated and alienated is unrealistic and unwise. The schools need the resources the community can offer. By harnessing these resources (individuals, business groups, organizations, and social agencies) schools can solve their internal problems, prosper, grow, and continue their true task of educating the nation's children.

Purpose

This course is designed to broaden participant awareness of resources in the community for solving problems in the school. The rationale for involving the community is presented, programs involving the community are introduced, and ways of garnering support are discussed. This course will help participants find new channels for support of school programs and projects, and provide techniques for gathering such support.

Module 7.1 explores the relationship between problems of violence and vandalism in the schools and their roots in community socioeconomic problems. The need for community involvement if problems are to be prevented is stressed. The establishment of community schools as a means of reducing problem behaviors in schools is discussed. Module 7.2 looks in more detail at the linkage of community and school as a way of solving school problems. The ingredients for starting school/community programs are analyzed and techniques for promoting active involvement in problems through a resource sharing network are examined. Module 7.3 establishes the importance of involving parents and other adult volunteers in the school's problem solving efforts. Obstacles are discussed, as well as ways of overcoming them and program descriptions are provided. Module 7.4 suggests ways to proceed when enlisting the aid of agencies, organizations, and businesses. Benefits and barriers to interagency cooperation are examined. Module 7.5 emphasizes the linkage of the juvenile justice system (courts and police departments in particular) with the schools in solving school problems.

Course Agenda by Module

Course 7 - The Community as a Problem-Solving Resource

Module 7.1 and 7.2 - School-Community Links (Combined Session)

Total Time 1½ hours

Module Summary

This combined session (a condensation of Modules 7.1 and 7.2) introduces the concepts of the school as community, of the school as part of the larger community, and of networking and linking mechanisms to bridge the two in attempts to prevent and reduce violence and vandalism. Community involvement in the school, community schools, and interagency cooperation are presented as strategies to promote positive linkage.

Activity/Content Summary	Time
1. Introduction and Course Overview	10-15 min.
A. The Concept of Community A sense of community can exist within a group, a school, or within the area a school serves.	
B. Binding Mechanisms--Linkage and Networks Linkage-building and networking extend any community's ability to function and serve.	
C. The Need for Community Outreach and Support Schools are part of a greater community, which influences not only the problems schools face but the solutions they can attempt.	
2. Involving the Community: Programs That Have Reduced School Violence and Vandalism Participants and trainer share examples of programs that involve various sectors of the community in helping solve school problems.	30 min.
3. The Community Schools Concept	15 min.
A. Description of the Community Education Approach	
B. Designing a Community Education Program--A Building Block Model	
4. Interagency Cooperation: The Yerba Buena Approach to School-Based Service Delivery	15-20 min.

Activity/Content Summary	Time
5. Techniques for Promoting Community Involvement There is a clear distinction between obtaining community awareness of a problem and of building active involvement of people and organizations in a project. Participants explore and discuss techniques for encouraging increased community participation in a resource-sharing network.	15-20 min.

Course 7 - The Community as a Problem-Solving Resource

Module 7.1 and 7.2 - School-Community Links (Combined Session)

Objectives

Participants will be able to--

1. Define the concept of community and the school's role in the greater community
2. Identify programs that involve various sectors of the community in helping solve school problems
3. Describe the community schools concept
4. Discuss an interagency cooperation approach to school-based service delivery
5. Discuss techniques for encouraging increased community participation in school problems and projects.

Description of Materials

Materials in this module are derived from those in Modules 7.1 and 7.2.

Course Agenda by Module

Course 7 - The Community as a Problem-Solving Resource

Module 7.1 - Role of the Community

Total Time 1 hour and 15 minutes (with optional activity)

Module Summary

This module introduces the relationship between school violence and vandalism and the root causes that lie within the community. Use of community resources in a community school is presented as a prevention approach that has shown promising results. The content and activities acquaint participants with possibilities for developing school-community links and provide examples of programs that have worked. A building-block model for developing a community school program is presented.

Activity/Content Summary — Time

1. Introduction to School-Community Relationships — 15 min.

2. Community Roots of School Violence and Vandalism — 15 min.

   The relationship between community socioeconomic problems and the incidence of school violence and vandalism is presented, showing the effects of the educational system's inability to cope single-handedly with the complex problems of modern society.

   A. Overview: Community Roots of the Problem

   B. Alienation: Response to the Little Red Schoolhouse Tradition

   C. The School's Reaction: Isolation, Containment, Control

3. A Different Strategy--Community Education — 10 min.

   Establishment of community schools has helped many communities reduce problem behaviors in schools. In a community school, facilities are used by the whole community and the school becomes a service center for delivery of needed human services.

   A. Introduction

   B. Description of Community School Concept

   C. Results of Community Education Programs

4. Community School Programs That Have Reduced School Violence and Vandalism — 10 min.

   A number of examples of school programs that involve the community are described. Models range from limited school and community cooperation to the full-scale community education program.

Activity/Content Summary	Time
A. Example of Limited Scope Community School Cooperation	
B. A Total Community Education Concept: The Yerba Buena Plan	
5. Group Discussion: Community Education in the Proposition 13 Era	10 min.
6. Rate Your Own School (Optional Activity)	15 min.
Individuals rate local schools according to the degree of community service integration.	
7. Design of a Community Education Program	10 min.
Participants observe how community school programs are developed using a building-block model and how each step in the model impacts the school's problems of violence and vandalism.	
A. Overview	
B. The Building-Block Model	
8. Wrap-Up	5 min.

About the Module

Course 7 - The Community as a Problem-Solving Resource

Module 7.1 - Role of the Community

Objectives

Participants will be able to--

1. Describe the relationship between community socioeconomic problems and violence and vandalism in schools
2. Describe the evolution of school isolation from the community
3. Differentiate between strategies that only control or contain the problem and those that address the underlying causes
4. Name some major components of the community that can assist the school in violence and vandalism prevention
5. List four fundamental ideas on which the community school concept is based
6. Describe the building-block model for developing a comprehensive community education program.

Description of Materials

Transparencies

7.1.1 - 7.1.7	Transparencies illustrate the development of alienation, results of alienation, reactive strategies, remedial strategies, components of the community, community school rationale, and components of community education.

Participant Worksheets

7.1.1	School-Community Relationships
7.1.2	Rate Your Own School

Background Materials

7.1.1	Workshop Content Summary, "The Role of the Community"
R.7.1.2	Community Schools. NSRN Technical Assistance Bulletin.

Resource Materials

R.7.1.1	Community Involvement in Schools. NSRN Technical Assistance Bulletin.
R.7.1.2	Community Schools. NSRN Technical Assistance Bulletin.
R.7.1.3	Yerba Buena: A School-Based Interagency Approach. NSRN Technical Assistance Bulletin.
R.7.1.4	Vandalism Preventive Education: Programs and Resources. NSRN Technical Assistance Bulletin.
R.7.1.5	School Community Cooperation, Oakland's Adopt-A-School Program. NSRN Technical Assistance Bulletin.

Course 7 - The Community as a Problem-Solving Resource
Module 7.1 - Role of the Community
Worksheet I-D 7.1.1

Participant Worksheet

Small Group Activity: School-Community Relationships

Reproduced below is a list of reasons for student absences typical of ones that high school guidance counselors see every day. The list was developed by the Cities in Schools program--a comprehensive youth-serving program that brings city services to troubled youth in schools. As Cities in Schools describes the list:

> The names of these youth are not real. The reasons they stayed home from school are. This list represents a collage of human need which floods our schools each day. Teachers have neither the time, resources, and, in many cases, the skills to solve these problems.

Glenda Allen - no answer
Sally Blue - ran away
*Robert Brown - wants to quit
*Jess Brown - had court hearing today
Richard Casey - unknown
Keith Cline - truant; mother said he left for school
Sheila Davis - sink overflowed; had to wait for plumber
Tom Duffey - out painting house all week; parent's permission
*Susie Gerholt - pregnancy illness
Janice Grantham - missed ride
David Harris - death in family (grandfather)
Nancy Hodap - ride left without her; no money for bus
Sandra Holland - glasses broken; mother called
Andrew Hunter - called mother; thought Andrew was in school
Mark Gasser - Job Corps
Sandy Johnson - false labor pains
Andrew Jones - overslept till 12
*Paulette Jones - fell down the steps
Leroy Kennard - went to Florida; sister had baby
*Vic Klinker - refuses to come to school; going to quit in a couple of weeks
Dan Lauhorn - had appointment at health clinic
*Thomas Mason - in juvenile court

Directions:

1. As a group, determine problems implied by the absences above. Develop a list of community resources that might be useful in dealing with the problems. Do not restrict the list to established agencies; try to make it a comprehensive inventory of places a student could get help.

2. Select a representative to present your conclusions to the larger group. In the presentation, point out why the students were selected as potential causes of violence and vandalism against the school, and why certain resources were selected to help them.

*Asterisks refer to a later optional activity.

Course 7 - The Community as a Problem Solving Resource

Module 7.1 - Role of the Community

Worksheet I-D 7.1.2

Participant Worksheet

Rate Your Own School

(Optional Activity)

1. Select the high school you are most acquainted with and one in which you are aware of the services that are available to students. Rate the school as follows:

1 point	For each of the problem students marked with an * who would be called into the counselor's office
5 points	For each one that would be served in an assistance program run by the school counseling staff
10 points	If the school would regularly refer the problem to a social agency or outside source of referral
15 points	For each student that would receive followup after the referral
25 points	For each student who would receive assistance from a social agency or volunteer program within the school setting

2. Write the score on a blank piece of paper. Do not indicate the school's name. Fold it and pass it to the trainer.

   He or she will compare the degrees of integration with the community (not quality of service) achieved by participant's schools.

Course 7 - THE COMMUNITY AS A PROBLEM SOLVING RESOURCE

Module 7.1 - The Role of the Community

Background I-D 7.1.1.

Background Materials

Workshop Content Summary: The Role of the Community

For some years public attention has been riveted on the shortcomings of the American educational system. Following close on the heels of indictments that "Johnny can't read," came national concern that violence and vandalism are threatening to disrupt the educational process in America. Schools have taken the brunt of the criticism for these problems, even though many of the root causes lie within the community as a whole. John Brewer, a principal in an all-black school, summarized the situation simply and eloquently:

> These children and parents have a dozen needs that are more urgent than the child's schooling. If a child is hungry, has no place to sleep, needs clothing or blankets, or is battered and abused, he is not ready to learn. If his parents are ill, fighting, being evicted or living without heat or electricity, they are not able to be concerned about the child's education. I have to try to do something about the first 12 problems before I can get their attention. (As quoted in Preventing Student Violence and Vandalism: The Yerba Buena Plan. California School Board Association. Sacramento, California. 1978)

Cities in Schools--a program designed to work with problem youth in schools--offered this explanation: "Students in trouble cause trouble...The toughest problem in urban education is...the social, economic, and personal problems of the students that prevents the students from learning...If we could solve the human problems, the teachers could solve the learning problems." Since the problems largely originate outside of the school, it is logical to seek solutions in the community surrounding the school.

Educators and others have devised a number of useful strategies for dealing with violence and vandalism in classrooms, halls, restrooms, and schoolyards. Some of the most effective include security measures, environmental control, disciplinary measures, conflict management, and other activities aimed at reducing or controlling the symptoms of the problem. Actual prevention, however, will require joint community-school efforts to eradicate the causes. Only by recognizing that the origins of the violence and vandalism are in the socioeconomic problems of the community, can long-term improvement in the situation be planned and effected.

THE SCHOOL AS A SCAPEGOAT

In an earlier age, the little red schoolhouse was charged with the enormous task of educating children and forming them into responsible, law-abiding citizens. But in the close-knit communities of the past, with active cooperation among school, church, and other groups, educators did not face this task alone. They received support and assistance from many different sources within the adult population. In modern communities, much of the burden has been shifted exclusively to the schools. Church ties, in many cases, are not as strong as they were in the past. The increasingly common single-parent families leave many children without adult supervision for large portions of the day. And the size of modern schools and communities rules out close involvement between young people and community figures such as shopkeepers, lawyers, doctors, and other potential role models.

The job of the school is now a much bigger undertaking. And as the schools grapple with increasingly severe social problems, the job clearly is becoming too big. This recognition has led to increasing popularity of the community education movement, which is enlarging the education process to once again involve the whole neighborhood. A recent publication of the California School Boards Association reflected the new awareness of the need for school-community links:

> Can the schools continue to do it alone? Can they fulfill their responsibilities as institutions for learning and at the same time counteract the educational effects of the increasing disruption of family life, the rising divorce rate and resulting increase of single-parent families, the loss of control and respect of parents by their children, as well as the alarming increase of juvenile crime and violence? The answer must be a resounding no--the schools' need for external community support is without question.

The inability of the schools to respond to all of these needs--both socioeconomic and educational--has led to charges that today's education is irrelevant and that schools have failed to live up to their responsibilities. The disillusionment and resulting alienation often are cited as primary factors underlying violence and vandalism in the school.

The School's Response

Educators, feeling increasing pressure, frustration, and a sense of failure, have relied primarily on curriculum changes to meet the demands of today's complex society. Literally hundreds of new approaches and programs have come and, in many cases, gone, but the organizational structure has not changed substantially, and resources from outside the community have not been brought into the school. Until very recently, little changed within the school, even though the problems confronting teachers on a daily basis changed radically.

In this situation, with frustration inside the school and charges of failure coming from the community, perspectives frequently become polarized. The community often views the school as an autonomous island--a closed system that deals with the community from a defensive posture. Uncertainty or ignorance about the functions of the school leads to reduced financial support for education and even bigger problems for the educator and administrator.

The school, on the other hand, sees itself as overburdened by socioeconomic factors that impinge on education. Teachers and administrators feel increasingly bitter over their implied responsibility to be all things to all young people. Their response is a natural tendency to withdraw from a critical and nonsupportive community--to keep problems and difficulties closely contained within the school and to avoid discussing difficulties with any segments of the community. Interaction with the neighborhood decreases, and loss of contacts seems to increase the community's isolation and alienation from the school.

While this pattern of isolation and alienation has not affected all of the nation's schools, it often has been identified in those institutions where the rates of violence and vandalism are high. On the other hand, attempts to reverse the process--to develop close and cooperative links between the school and the community--have yielded impressive results. The concept of community education is helping schools in many areas reduce, and in some cases almost eliminate, problems of violence and vandalism. In addition, this newly popular concept is tremendously enriching educational and recreational opportunities for both young people and adults in communities where it is introduced.

TARGETS FOR SCHOOL-COMMUNITY COOPERATION

In school systems that have yet to adopt community education approaches, community contact with the school is limited largely to meetings of the parent-teacher organization. This group forms the major link between "us" inside the school and "them" on the outside. School systems are not often penetrated by the "outsiders." Even social agencies do not integrate their work with the school's programs; instead, they very carefully maintain their own separate bureaucratic domains. For example, the welfare, social services, health, and mental health providers in most communities do not regularly come into the schools to meet with clients. Contacts between the school and the criminal justice system also are kept to an absolute minimum.

Educators' sense of responsibility to the child has made them reluctant to abdicate control over what goes on in school. Different systems of training and credentialing for professionals within the criminal justice and human service systems also have led to mutual distrust that has inhibited cooperation.

The school or the community that wishes to resolve problems of crime and violence will have to confront these barriers openly. Before progress can be made the community must be defined broadly to encompass:

- Youth
- Adults--both parents and others
- Politicians

- Health and human service agencies
- Religious and civic organizations
- Business and industry
- The criminal justice system

People in each of these groups must work jointly to develop a new sense of common purpose.

THE COMMUNITY SCHOOL

While maintenance of the status quo characterizes many schools and school systems throughout the country, increasing numbers of people are responding to the need for change by involving the entire community in the school. This newly popular approach--which in reality harks back to earlier days in American education--is marked by a change in name of the educational institution from public school to community school. As this initiative gains momentum, institutions in many parts of the country are expanding into service centers for the neighborhood and community. They are opening their doors in the afternoons, evenings, weekends, and summer months to people of all ages, operating as centers for activities and services in which the schools themselves may have only a small part.

Interest in the community school grew with a widespread realization that schools--costly community resources--were not being used economically. Sylvia Porter, a nationally syndicated columnist, noted this economic waste:

> Our public schools are to an appalling degree unused for long periods, representing an abuse of schools and an extravagance that America simply cannot afford...Most of the schools financed and maintained by taxes are closed for a startling 50% of the time. (Sylvia Porter, "Your Money's Worth," Field Newspaper Syndicates, December 1974.)

The ideas underlying the community school concept are simple:

- Since the school is a community resource, supported financially by the people, it should be accessible to everyone.
- It is too costly to use school facilities for limited periods of time and leave them closed for summer months or other times that the community could make use of the building.
- Educational and recreational needs are not restricted to the children of the community.
- The school is a logical central location for coordinated delivery of a wide range of human services.

William J. Ellen, a superintendent of schools in Charlottesville, Virginia, developed five practical rationales that support opening up the school to the community:

1. The school plant already exists, fully equipped and ready for use.
2. The overhead costs of administration continue to be approximately the same whether schools are open or closed during the summer months.

3. Fixed charges such as insurance, interest, and capital outlay costs remain fairly constant (whether the schools are in operation or shut down).
4. The teaching staff--the community's most important educational asset--is (in considerable measure) already mobilized.
5. Many children of school age are left without any constructive programs during the late afternoons, evenings, and summer months. (Ellen, William J., "Potential of Community Education" in *Administrators and Policy Makers' Views of Community Education*, University of Charlottesville, Virginia, 1977).

Objectives of Community Education

The community school or education approach strives to make the school a center of the neighborhood. It provides educational, recreational, social, cultural, and human services designed to meet the needs of all community members--children, youth, adults and the elderly. It is based on the premise that local resources can be drawn together in a central location to assist in solving neighborhood problems. It also acknowledges that schools and community agencies working together have a greater ability to have an impact on community problems than organizations working independently.

The community education philosophy sees the school as a service center operating in partnership with other groups in the community. While not designed primarily as an answer to problems of violence and vandalism in schools, the community education movement has been surprisingly successful in combating these problems.

IMPLEMENTING THE COMMUNITY EDUCATION CONCEPT

Community education requires integration of the people, agencies, and institutions of the community. It most often is initiated by an individual already working in the school system. The school is a logical agent of change because of its central position in the community, but it is by no means the only agency that can initiate the push toward community education. In many locales, community colleges, recreation programs, or human service agencies have provided the initial leadership needed to develop the momentum. However, as simple, logical, and desirable as the change may be, it poses a variety of potential threats and problems both to the school and the community. Barriers posed by natural resistance to change must be overcome. The tendency of bureaucracies to guard prerogatives and build empires must be short-circuited through recognition of shared social responsibilities. Old structures must be changed, and new administrative and fiscal mechanisms put in place.

Larry E. Decker of the School of Education at the University of Virginia conceptualized the process as evolving over time in a building block fashion (Decker, Larry E. and Virginia A., Administrators and Policy Makers' Views of Community Education, University of Virginia, Charlottesville, 1977):

COMPONENTS OF COMMUNITY EDUCATION

(6) Community organization and development

(5) Community centering K-12 programs

(4) Citizens involvement and participation

(3) Interagency coordination, cooperation, collaboration

(2) Lifelong learning and enrichment programs

(1) Expanded use of school facilities
Community Schools=Community Centers

Using Decker's schema, we can see how the rapprochement between the school and the community often begins with the expanded use of school facilities. Typically, the school's gymnasium, cafeteria, track, playing fields, or auditorium are made available to the community for use after school hours, and sometimes even during school hours. This brings a stream of people from the community into the school where they see what is going on. With widening community awareness of the school's activities and needs, closer identification with the school can develop. The results often include more voter support for school budget requests, more volunteers to assist the school, and an adult presence that serves as a deterrent to violence and disruption. The simple fact that the school is not closed for long periods cuts down substantially on window breaking, arson, theft, and crimes that occur while the school is unattended. The principle is not too subtle--when the school is in use by the community there are more people around as observers for far longer periods of time.

Expanding the hours that school facilities are open permit them to be used for educational programs that serve adults (the second step in Decker's model). Local colleges, civic groups, or the local school district itself typically can offer courses and enrichment programs for the community in the evenings or on weekends.

Once the precedent of opening the school to the community is set and cooperation well established, the community education concept can be expanded to begin delivery of needed social services at the school. This means that such agencies as mental health, health, welfare, employment, and others, can come out to the school to serve both youths and adults. The services may include marriage and family counseling, drug and alcohol abuse treatment, parent effectiveness training, birth control or prenatal counseling, inoculation programs, preventive health care, probation and employment counseling, or any of a dozen others. The key factor here is that the human services agencies are cooperating with the school. They have a central neighborhood location where they can seek out clients and serve community needs. By doing so, they are going where the people are rather than simply accepting referrals from other agencies. Often the service providers who move into schools find that people will come to a school when they may lack the time, energy, or motivation to go to a distant or unknown location in a city to seek services from organizations they see as impersonal, bureaucratic, and uncaring.

The citizen involvement and participation phase of community education is shown on Decker's schema at the fourth step in the evolution of the process. In reality, however, the community has already been informally involved from the inception. By including this as a step, Decker points out the value of giving the community a formal, participatory role through advisory councils. Experts agree that such bodies are most important to the success of the effort and suggest that advisory groups should be formed at the level of the individual school and have well defined roles in the program.

Decker's fifth phase brings the community-centered concern into the classroom. Adults from the community serve as resources in the teaching process, for example, as aides, guest speakers, or tutors. The classroom also is expanded out into the community with factories, businesses, museums, art galleries, laboratories, and other community facilities serving as settings for learning activities. This step represents the first time the school's relationship to the individual child in the classroom begins to change--even affecting the most closely guarded responsibility of the school system.

The last step takes the community education from outside the realm of the school and extends it to the problems of the neighborhood. In this final stage, the whole community becomes the focus of the activities that have become centered in the school. When development has progressed to this stage, the community advisory board, the school staff, and a well-coordinated group of human service providers can sit down together and plan ways to mobilize resources to attack the community's unique problems. The concerns may extend to housing, unemployment, hunger, poor health care, or other problems that exist in the community but still have an impact on the school.

COMMUNITY EDUCATION AS A DETERRENT TO VIOLENCE

To the school or community interested in reducing violence and vandalism in the school setting, the community education concept offers tremendous potential. For example, the first two steps in Decker's model extend use of school facilities into the evening hours. Bringing more people into the schools for longer hours expands surveillance and increases the knowledge people have about the school. Pride begins to develop as people learn that they can use and enjoy the school's facilities. Interest and involvement gradually evolve as the school starts to serve the larger community.

Step three begins to attack the problem at a more basic level. By offering services through the school, more people tend to get more help. Those in need can be served better and are not simply referred from one agency to another. On-site service delivery can alleviate many school problems too, such as truancy, disruption and drug use.

Finally, by the time the last is reached, the school becomes the center for marshalling the entire community's resources on the neighborhood's problems. At this stage, a community and school can embark on a true violence and vandalism effort. Through concerted action--taking internal actions to deal with effects of problems--the school can move from a reactive posture to an active stance in which the root problems can be attacked on a communitywide scale.

In 1973-74, a University of Michigan study compared levels of vandalism in community and non-community centered schools in California. The study showed that even though the community schools were almost always located in troubled neighborhoods, in contrast to those that remained traditional, the impact of the new approach seemed to reduce vandalism considerably. Specific findings revealed that:

- Incidents of vandalism dropped 20 percent in community schools compared to a drop of 14 percent in non-community institutions

- The mean cost of vandalism dropped 28.7 percent in community schools versus a 6.3 percent decrease in traditional schools.

While the study does not offer conclusive proof that community schools are the answer to the vandalism problem, it does suggest that the community school can make important contributions to reducing problem behaviors.

In a similar study conducted in Michigan communities, vandalism in schools dropped significantly after inauguration of the community school concept. Decreases in vandalism of over 50 percent were common in the 13 communities studied.

PROPOSITION 13--BUDGET CUTS

While the community education concept has met with considerable success and is recognized as a deterrent to violence and vandalism, funding is not always available for such activities. With Proposition 13-type cutbacks, many schools are faced with the reality of working with tighter budgets and have been forced to cut back on innovative programs. Others who hope to implement them have had to postpone their initiation.

Even with tighter budgets, schools can still begin new programs if they are able to find new methods of funding, or if they are able to reach out into the community for support. Involving the community in supplying funds or resources doubles the interest in new programs. Funding can be available if new grants are pursued and new channels of resources are attacked.

CONCLUSION

John M. Rector, former administrator of the LEAA Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention, summed up the importance of school-community links in testimony before the subcommittee on Economic Opportunity, Committee on Education and Labor, House of Representatives:

> In approaching the problems of schools, it is important to remember that the school is a microcosm of the community it serves. The problems of that community will be reflected in its schools. School violence must be viewed in the context of community violence, illegal gang activity, learning disabilities, substance abuse, nutrition, and the myriad of other factors determining the quality of life in a particular community.

The community school offers a well-tried method that has demonstrated promising results throughout the country. It offers an approach to prevention that will assist many communities with the problems of school violence and vandalism.

National School Resource Network 4

National Center • 5530 Wisconsin Avenue, N.W., Washington, DC • (301) 654-2550 • Toll Free (800) 638-8090
Eastern Regional Center • 53 Bay State Road, Boston, MA 02215 • (617) 353-4554
Southern Regional Center • 58 6th Street, N.E., Atlanta, GA 30308 • (404) 872-0296
Midwestern Regional Center • 6 North Michigan Avenue, Suite 1706, Chicago, IL 60602 • (312) 782-5787
Western Regional Center • 18 Professional Center Parkway, San Rafael, CA 94903 • (415) 472-1227

R.7.1.2

Technical Assistance Bulletin

Community Schools

Summary

Community schools offer a comprehensive program of services to the community in addition to the traditional educational services all public schools provide. The recreational, social, cultural, and human services provided through the community schools are designed to meet needs of diverse community members, including children, youth, adults, and the elderly. The community education philosophy sees the school as a locus of service activity, operating in partnership with other groups in the community. The community school concept appears to have several advantages, including community participation in the education process, increased opportunity for service provision to students and their families, and reduced violence and vandalism. This bulletin describes a variety of comprehensive community school models.

The Problem

Schools today face a dilemma. By law, schools are accountable for teaching students until they reach a certain age. But the problems that some students bring to school sometimes make it almost impossible for them to learn and for the teachers to teach. As one principal, John Brewer, summarized the situation:

> These children and parents have a dozen needs that are more urgent than the child's schooling. If a child is hungry, has no place to sleep, needs clothing or blankets, or is battered and abused, he is not ready to learn. If his parents are ill, fighting, being evicted, or living without heat or electricity, they are not able to be concerned about the child's education. I have to try to do something about the first 12 problems before I can get their attention.

(As quoted in Preventing Student Violence and Vandalism: The Yerba Buena Plan Sacramento, California: California School Board Association, 1978).

Thus, schools may be overburdened by socioeconomic factors that impinge upon education, and they frequently have the resources to deal with only a few of the many problems which are part of their students' environment. Some of these problems contribute directly to incidents of violence and vandalism in the schools.

The Solution

Some school districts have worked with the larger community to address these problems by instituting a comprehensive community school program. When a school becomes a community school it becomes a service center for the neighborhood and/or community and operates in partnership with other community groups to fill the needs of the residents, keeping its doors open afternoons, evenings, and summers. Local resources, are drawn together in a central location and are therefore able to more effectively solve neighborhood problems.

A useful definition of the community school concept was provided in a recent survey of local education agencies offering programs of community education. According to the survey report, a community education pro-

Prepared under Grant #79JS-AX-0019 from the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention, Law Enforcement Assistance Administration, U.S. Department of Justice
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gram is a program operated by a school district or comparable jurisdiction consisting of program units, each of which --

- Is based at a school building ("community school") or comparable facility which presents itself and is recognized as a community center
- Is staffed by at least a half-time community school director (i.e., a person whose job is to facilitate the development and operation of total community programs through the community center)
- Is advised by a community advisory council whose membership has a profile (race, ethnicity, sex, age, income) which reasonably matches the profile of the corresponding community and is comprised of at least 50 percent indigenous community residents who have been democratically selected, with the balance being representatives of significant organizations (including the school) based in the corresponding community
- Engages in systematic and comprehensive assessment of human needs in its community; logical planning (including specification of goals, priorities, and time-specific objectives in the design of programs) to address identified needs; program execution; and plan and program evaluation.*

Example: Jackson Community School

The Jackson Community School was opened in 1967, thus becoming the first community school opened in the State of Utah. It is still thriving and some of the founders are still active in the school, including the current coordinator, Lucy O'Terrell.

During the day, Jackson Community School serves 400 students in grades K-6. The neighborhood's population is approximately 70 percent minority. After school and in the evening, a variety of educational and recreation programs are offered to the surrounding community.

The Jackson Community School is an example of a community school in which coordinator acts as a contact point between the neighborhood and the services provided by the social agencies. Lucy O'Terrell, the community school coordinator, has made it part of her job to identify the needs of neighborhood residents. Problems for which area residents need assistance include housing, health care, marriage counseling, and child abuse. Ms. O'Terrell has worked to discover which social service agencies could fill those needs and what the procedures are for obtaining the needed services.

"If people need information and applications for food stamps, I've got it. Whatever they need, I've got it," Ms. O'Terrell says of her job. The Jackson Community School has thus created a vital and needed link between the social service agencies and the people in the school's neighborhood.

The office for the community school has been named "The Front Room" and each evening Ms. O'Terrell invites a guest speaker to appear in The Front Room to speak and answer questions. Speakers and their topics are posted in advance so residents can arrange to hear those in which they are most interested. Sometimes the speaker is a physician, a social worker, a political figure, or anyone who is willing to talk about what they do and answer questions. Ms. O'Terrell is especially pleased that neighborhood women know there is always a place they can go to for a little while in the evening, to get away from the kitchen and be with other people.

The Jackson Community School relies on ingenuity and volunteer resources to provide its wide array of services to the community. For example, classes are offered by the community school for an average charge of $2, which covers teachers' salaries. Ms. O'Terrell recruited elderly neighborhood women to give courses in crocheting, quiltmaking, candymaking, and baking. She found them through word-of-mouth recommendations and they proved to be very skillful and popular teachers. Ms. O'Terrell explained her philosophy in hiring: she tells applicants that they must work with people in a way that allows people to be themselves; and that teachers must be patient, must listen, and must be able to help the students.

---

*From "Enrolling Community Support," by Marilyn Steele of the Charles Steward Mott Foundation, (Journal of Research and Development II, No. 2, 1978).

Other courses currently offered include remedial math and reading for children. Job-related courses such as typing as well as ethnic cooking and woodworking are offered.

Example: John F. Kennedy Community Center and Middle School, Atlanta, Georgia

The John F. Kennedy Community Center and Middle School provides comprehensive services to a large, inner-city neighborhood in Atlanta. A task force was created to study the needs of the neighborhood before building the school in 1971. The task force recommended this unusual community school arrangement to serve youth and adults simultaneously and provide physical space for a broad range of services. This facility contains 100,000 square feet of space in the middle school, and 125,000 square feet of space in the community services wing.

The Atlanta Department of Education runs four programs in the John F. Kennedy Center:

- A middle school serving 900 children in grades 6, 7, and 8
- A day care center for neighborhood children aged 2½ to 4½
- A training facility for mentally retarded students
- An evening program in adult education and enrichment.

The community center part of the facility provides office space for a number of community service agencies including --

- A family and child services office, with a staff of 100
- A Social Security office
- A senior citizens services office
- A vocational rehabilitation facility
- A department of court services which works with youthful offenders who live in the community
- A recreation department.

Careful planning is required to insure these needed services and avoid duplication of services already provided by other agencies. For example, the community center does not offer health services, since there are already two excellent health care facilities in the neighborhood. Each agency housed in the John F. Kennedy Community Center has an advisory committee composed of community and agency people who meet at least once a month to assess how the agency is meeting the needs of the community.

Marshall Arnold, director of the community center, serves as the coordinator of all services offered through the center. Mr. Arnold has his own advisory committee which is made up of all the agency directors in his center along with a number of community representatives. This group meets monthly to do an overall needs assessment for the community. This meeting also serves as a forum for uncovering any duplication of services and for the design of new services.

The staff of the John F. Kennedy Community Center and Middle School is more than 300 persons, counting the 100 persons who work in the middle school and other Department of Education programs. Mr. Arnold explains that a first-time visitor to the center is usually sent to the Economic Opportunity Atlanta (EOA) agency--a kind of "cure-all" agency which responds to needs on a first-aid basis, such as providing emergency food and shelter. After immediate needs are met, this agency guides the resident of the neighborhood to other agencies housed in the center which can provide long-term assistance. Thus, the Kennedy Community Center is equipped to provide both immediate and long-term assistance to the more than 1,500 neighborhood residents who visit it weekly.

Clifford A. Nahser, the school architect, described the reasons for the minimal vandalism which occurs in the building:

1. People are in the center from 7 a.m. until 11 p.m., including weekends.
2. The school building is designed with inaccessible windows, bright graphics on interior walls, and a Lexan glaze.
3. The full-time community school director plans activities which represent the desires of the community.

Arsenal Technical High School, Indianapolis, Indiana

Arsenal Technical High School has a form of community school in its Tech 300 program, one of several demonstration projects known as Cities in Schools. These programs integrate a number of social services which disadvantaged youth need right at the educational site. The philosophy behind this project is that by coordinating these agencies a desirable effect is achieved which any one acting alone would be incapable of achieving.

The social services available through the Tech 300 program are the same services available to all high school youth in Indianapolis. Sometimes the students who need these services most have lacked the information, skills, and energy to obtain them from the large number of separate agencies. Arsenal Technical High School has designed a form of community school which insures the students receive the services they need.

The basic program at Tech 300 organizes the students into "families" composed of 40 students and the following four staff persons:

- A facilitator who coordinates the family's calendar of activities, family meetings, and recordkeeping. He or she also supervises family responsibilities and administers student discipline and counseling.
- A social service specialist who acts as school liaison with social service agencies such as health, welfare, and juvenile corrections offices. The social service specialist assists other team members in diagnosing social problems, making appropriate referrals, and monitoring the progress of the referred students.
- A programmatic specialist who designs an individual program for each student in the family, filling the recreational, cultural, and vocational needs of that student. The programmatic specialist taps the services of clubs, parks, recreation programs, and community centers to provide for the students' social adjustment and development.
- A supportive educator who provides remedial work in basic skill areas. The supportive educator coordinates the delivery of educational services to the students in the family.

Takoma Park Junior High Community School

Montgomery County, Maryland, has 15 schools which have been designated community schools. One of the community schools is Takoma Park Junior High. The facilitator is Freddye Davy, who is also a teacher in the school. A $2,000 budget was allocated to the school this year by the county government for community school activities. Much of this money is spent running Project ASSIST, an afterschool tutoring program open from 3:15 p.m. to 5:15 p.m. Project ASSIST is open to all children in the community, not just those who attend Takoma Park Junior High.

Residents of the Takoma Park neighborhood request activities to be scheduled in the community school facilities. For example, the Nordic Dancers and the International Folk Dancers both meet at the Takoma Park Community School. A local theatrical group has reserved rehearsal space at the school and will be presenting their plays at the school. The Community Chorus practices in the building and gives their concerts in the auditorium. The Takoma Park Marching Band also practices at the school.

The Recreation Department maintains an open gymnasium at the community school three nights a week and on weekends. Residents can also request that their own competitive sports events be scheduled into the gymnasium. Five nights a week, from 9:00 p.m. to 11:00 p.m., volleyball teams use the gym. This serves the recreational needs of the neighbors and also means that adults are in the building until 11:00 every night, which reduces the hours for potential vandalism. Ms. Davy reports that vandalism is considered only a minor problem at Takoma Park Community School.

In addition to the night time activities, a local Boys and Girls Club schedules competitive sports such as football, soccer, and basketball at the community school during the afternoon and on Saturdays. The local YMCA also schedules some of its activities out of the Takoma Park facility, and a branch of the YMCA Youth Basketball League is headquartered at Takoma Park. The county department of adult education also schedules many evening classes in the community school. This fall there are two classes in bricklaying (a highly paid and much in demand occupation in the Washington, D.C. area). There is also a popular "English As a Second Language" course for adults. One of the local colleges occasionally sponsors classes which meet at the school.

Community Schools in Flint, Michigan

Flint, Michigan, is a unique community. Every one of the 52 schools in Flint is a community school. Since the 1930's, the Charles Stewart Mott Foundation has supported the Flint public schools community school development programs.

Most of the students in Flint are bussed to magnet schools to achieve racial balance. There are magnet schools to appeal to a number of choices: schools which stress global education and schools emphasizing foreign languages. There are schools of math and schools emphasizing art. There is a high school of medical science. Children are bussed out of their neighborhoods to the magnet school of their choice. At the end of the school day, the children are bussed back to their neighborhood elementary schools. Many people who oppose bussing argue that it destroys the sense of neighborhood which a neighborhood school builds. But because each school in Flint is a community school, children return to their neighborhood school in the afternoon and evening for recreational and educational activities, thus retaining the neighborhood-building role of the local school. Thus, Flint is able to enjoy both the richness of specialized educational options and the advantages of a strong neighborhood school system.

(See also the Bulletin on Flint, Michigan Community Schools.)

Results

A comprehensive community school program has proved to be a cost-effective way to deliver services to neighborhoods. Certainly, a greater proportion of the citizens benefit directly when the range of school services to the community is extended. It is economically sound to use school facilities during evening and summer months rather than leaving the building unused. Sylvia Porter, a nationally syndicated columnist, pointed out the cost of using school facilities only during the school day:

> Our public schools are to an appalling degree unused for long periods representing an abuse of schools and an extravagance that America simply cannot afford . . .
>
> Most of the schools financed and maintained by taxes are closed for a startling 50 percent of the time.

(Sylvia Porter, "Your Money's Worth," Field Newspaper Syndicates, December 1974).

Further, community schools offer a great potential for reducing violence and vandalism in the school setting. Because the use of school facilities is extended, more people are in the school more often, expanding surveillance and discouraging vandalism. Moreover, it appears that as the school starts to serve the larger community's needs, there is less anger to vent. Pride begins to develop as people use and enjoy the school's facilities. On-site delivery of services can work to alleviate problems such as truancy, disruption, drug use, and other difficulties that lead to school violence.

Replication Issues

Research Triangle Institute of Raleigh-Durham, North Carolina, studied the proliferation of community schools in its National Assessment of Community Education in 1976. Some 36 percent of the schools in the national survey offered some sort of community school program. There was substantial agreement among the school districts studied that the following are the minimum criteria for classification as a community education program:

1. The school district must have an established citizen's advisory group.
2. The board of education must have a formal board resolution in support of community education.
3. The schools must support cooperation and coordination with other community resources.
4. The district must engage in a formal neighborhood needs assessment to determine programs to meet community needs.
5. The district must integrate K-12 programs with community education.

6. A community school director, must be supplied to each school and work at least half-time at that school.

Required Resources

Community schools have higher costs for utilities, personnel, insurance, and maintenance. Some parts of community school programs are self-supporting, but costs for the staff and some program support must be budgeted by the county government, the department of recreation, or the school system.

References

Brochures, pamphlets, media packages and reprints of articles are available to schools interested in community school programs from the following organization:

National Clearinghouse for Community
Education
Marion Kratage, Director
6011 Executive Boulevard
Rockville, Maryland 20850
(301) 770-3000

There is an organization for schools which have or are interested in starting a community school program. The $40 annual membership fee includes a newsletter, a journal, and notice of the annual convention.

National Association for
Community Education
Paul Tremper, Executive Director
1030 15th Street, NW, Suite 536
Washington, D.C. 20005
(800) 424-8874

An intensive 2 week training course in community school management is offered by the National Center for Community Organization, a private group. For information, contact--

Dr. Dwane Brown, Director
National Center for
Community Education
1017 Avon Street
Flint, Michigan 48503
(313) 238-0463

Publications

Minzey, Jack. Community Education From Program To Process. Midland, Michigan: Pendell Publishing, 1976.

Seay, Maurice. Community Education: A Developing Process. Midland, Michigan: Pendell Publishing, 1977.

Decker, Larry. People Helping People: An Overview of Community Education. Midland, Michigan: Pendell Publishing, 1976.

Course Agenda by Module

Course 7 - The Community as a Problem-Solving Resource

Module 7.2 - Reaching and Involving the Community

Total Time 1 hour and 30 minutes

Module Summary

This module introduces methods for obtaining community support and assistance. The linking mechanisms that can be used to develop community awareness are identified. Strategies for conducting public relations efforts and for finding "seed money" are briefly introduced. Methods for involving the community are presented, and participants analyze an action plan devised by a community school program stressing inter-agency cooperation.

Activity/Content Summary	Time
1. Reaching the Community	10 min.
Community-school cooperation is an effective means of solving the problems of school violence and vandalism. Participants learn the key ingredients in starting joint community-school programs, ranging from limited cooperation within the traditional school structure to the comprehensive community education approach in which the school structure and functions change.	
A. Review of Concepts--The Need for Cooperation	
B. The Need for Leadership	
2. Linking Mechanisms	10 min.
3. Discussion of Public Relations Strategies	10 min.
4. Finding Money To Get Started	10 min.
5. Techniques for Promoting Community Involvement	20 min.
There is a clear distinction between obtaining community awareness of a school's problem and active involvement of people and organizations in a project. Participants explore several techniques for encouraging increased community participation in a resource sharing network.	
6. Community Contact Matrix Worksheet	5 min.
7. An Action Plan--How One Model Program Got Started	15 min.
Using principles developed by the staff of the Yerba Buena High School program to reduce problem behaviors, participants analyze	

Activity/Content Summary	Time
how one successful program was able to get started. In a group discussion, participants contrast this model with those that have worked in their local communities.	
A. Introduction--Purpose of Activity	
B. Yerba Buena's Organizational Rules	
8. Summary	10 min.

About the Module

Course 7 - The Community as a Problem-Solving Resource

Module 7.2 - Reaching and Involving the Community

Objectives

Participants will be able to--

1. Relate the need for school/community cooperation as a method of reducing school violence and vandalism
2. List linking mechanisms that can be used to develop awareness of the problem within the community and obtain the needed support
3. Enumerate public relations strategies that can be employed by the linking mechanisms in reaching the community
4. Identify several important local resources to help find "seed money"
5. List techniques that can be used to actively involve the community
6. Analyze a model action plan for establishing a community education program to identify the linking mechanisms, public relations strategies, and techniques for developing linkages.

Description of Materials

Transparencies

7.2.1 - 7.2.4 Transparencies depict the key role of leadership, the characteristics of the "enabler" who can initiate community programs, strategies for reaching the community, and linking mechanisms that can plant a "message" or new idea in the community.

Participant Worksheets

7.2.1	Model for Improving School-Community Linkages
7.2.2	Community Contact Matrix
7.2.3	Organizational Rules--Community/School Cooperation

Participant Worksheet

Course • 7 - The Community as a Problem-Solving Resource

Module 7.2 - Reaching and Involving the Community

Worksheet I-D 7.2.1

Model for Improving School-Community Linkages

Directions: Participants in small groups will analyze the model described below for increasing school-community linkages and brainstorm lists of activities for a specific technique as assigned by trainer. Please use activities that might assist a school in a violence and vandalism prevention and reduction program. List suggestions on a flip chart for sharing with the whole group.

Jacqueline Scherer of Oakland University developed a model for improving school-community agency cooperation and coordination. The model uses a seven-step system to develop the needed linkages in a resource-sharing network. They include:

1. Increasing the number of contacts between the school and other agencies of socialization--Use school space for community socialization organizations; house crisis centers within school walls. Develop formal and regular linkages between the school and other community organizations. Mechanisms may include informal cooperation, formal cooperation based on written agreements, formal purchase agreements, and coordinated services. Encourage informal interorganizational ties at the middle level of organizations to bring teachers and agency staff together with community representatives.

2. Using varied channels for contact--Actively involve students as a communication channel for reaching the community members and the organizations within the community.

3. Recognizing shared responsibilities--Develop within the school and the social service agencies the concept that each professional belongs to a larger socialization network that is accountable for shared socialization of youth. The shared goal of both schools and human service agencies, thus, is to increase the "social capital" of students and to show them that they have many sources of support.

4. Extending network range--Increase the number of ties between organizations. Both school staff members and community members need to serve on community boards, planning commissions, and community groups. The school's interest needs to be advocated in political groups.

5. Expanding liaison staff--Designate persons to enlarge community links and develop more creative roles for such personnel. Provide the liaison effort with high-level involvement, administrative supports, and attention.

6. Reducing negative linkages--Recognize that not all community-school linkages will yield positive results. Analyze contacts for positive or negative potential and develop strategies for reducing negative contacts.

7. Researching school networks--Make serious efforts to identify and document contacts in order to increase an understanding of the process network formation.

Source: School Crime and Disruption: Prevention Models, a publication of the National Institute of Education

Course 7 - The Community as a Problem Solving Resource

Module 7.2 - Reaching and Involving the Community

Worksheet I-D 7.2.2

Participant Worksheet

COMMUNITY CONTACT MATRIX

	Contact Date	Type of Contact (Telephone, Visit, etc.)	Outcomes						Decision-makers' Names
			Negative Response	Interest	Further Contact	More Information	Informal Agreement	Formal Agreement	
Community Agencies/Government									
1. Social Service Agencies and Programs									
Alcoholics Anonymous									
Big Brothers									
Boy Scouts									
Camp Fire Girls									
Cancer Society									
Day Care Center									
Easter Seals									
Family Service Association									
Girl Scouts									
Goodwill Industries									
Humane Society									
Legal Services									
March of Dimes									
Meals on Wheels									
Mental Health Association									
Muscular Dystrophy									
Planned Parenthood									
PTA									
Red Cross									
Salvation Army									
Travelers Aid									
United Way									
Voluntary Action Center or Volunteer Bureau									
YMCA or YWCA									

	Contact Date	Type of Contact (Telephone, Visit, etc.)	Outcomes						Decision-makers' Names
			Negative Response	Interest	Further Contact	More Information	Informal Agreement	Formal Agreement	
2. **Public Interest, Service and Advocacy Organizations** American Association of Retired Persons									
Common Cause									
Consumers League									
Friends of the Earth									
League of Women Voters									
Municipal League									
NAACP									
NOW									
Peoples Bicentennial Comm.									
Sierra Club									
Urban Coalition									
Urban League									
3. **Political Parties** 4. **Churches and Religious Groups** 5. **Local and State Government** a. Legislators									
b. Governor									
c. Governor's staff									
d. Department heads: - Welfare									
- Public Health									
- Social Services									
- Education									
e. Federal and State Supported Projects: - Alcohol and drug treatment programs									

	Contact Date	Type of Contact (Telephone, Visit, etc.)	Outcomes						Decision-makers' Names
			Negative Response	Interest	Further Contact	More Information	Informal Agreement	Formal Agreement	
- Hospitals									
- Programs for youth and elderly									
- Research projects									
- Community Mental Health Centers									
6. Local Chapter of Professional Associations a. Accountants - American Institute of Certified Public Accountants									
- American Society of Women Accountants									
- National Association of Accountants									
- National Society of Public Accountants									
b. Architects - American Institute of Architects									
- American Institute of Interior Designers									
- American Institute of Planners									
c. Communications/Public Relations - Public Relations Society of America									
- American Association of Advertising Agencies									
- American Advertising Federation									

	Contact Date	Type of Contact (Telephone, Visit, etc.)	Outcomes						Decision-makers' Names
			Negative Response	Interest	Further Contact	More Information	Informal Agreement	Formal Agreement	
- National School Public Relations Association									
d. Funding - National Society of Fund Raisers									
e. Insurance - American Association of Insurance Management									
- American Society of Chartered Life Underwriters									
- International Association of Health Underwriters									
- National Association of Life Underwriters									
f. Lawyers/Attorneys - American Bar Association									
- Federal Bar Association									
- National Bar Association									
g. Management - Administrative Management Society									
- American Business Women's Association									
- American Management Association									
- American Society of Public Administration									
- International City Management Association									
- National Council of Industrial Management									
- National Management Association									

	Contact Date	Type of Contact (Telephone, Visit, etc.)	Outcomes						Decision-makers' Names
			Negative Response	Interest	Further Contact	More Information	Informal Agreement	Formal Agreement	
h. Nurses - American Nurses Association									
- National Student Nurses Association									
i. Physicians/Dentists - American Medical Association									
- American Dental Association									
- American Hospital Association									
j. Teachers - American Federation of Teachers									
- American Library Association									
- National Education Association									
7. Educational and Training Programs a. Colleges and Universities - College of Education									
- Office of Continuing Education									
- Office of Grant Supported Research									
- Department of Social Science									
- University Extension									
- Department of Social Service									

	Contact Date	Type of Contact (Telephone, Visit, etc.)	Outcomes						Decision-makers' Names
			Negative Response	Interest	Further Contact	More Information	Informal Agreement	Formal Agreement	
- School of Social Work									
- Adult Education Division									
- Cooperative Education Service									
- Human Relations Lab									
- School of Social Administration									
- Division of Community Development									
b. Social service agencies involved in training									
c. Professional associations									
d. Business and industry with training departments									
8. Service Organizations									
Altrusa									
AAUW									
American Legion									
B'Nai B'Rith									
Chamber of Commerce									
Elks									
Future Homemakers of America									
General Federation of Women's Clubs									
Junior Achievement									
Junior League									
Kiwanis									
Knights of Columbus									
Lions International									
National Alliance of Businessmen									

	Contact Date	Type of Contact (Telephone, Visit, etc.)	Outcomes						Decision-makers' Names
			Negative Response	Interest	Further Contact	More Information	Informal Agreement	Formal Agreement	
National Federation of Business and Professional Women's Club									
National Grange									
4-H									
National Safety Council									
Optimist International									
Pilot Club									
Quota									
Rotary									
Soroptimists									
Toastmasters									
U.S. Jaycees									
Veterans of Foreign Wars									
Zonta									
Others									
9. Local Foundations									
10. Local Business and Industry									

Course 7 - The Community as a Problem Solving Resource
Module 7.2 - Reaching and Involving the Community
Worksheet I-D 7.2.3

Participant Worksheet

Organizational Rules
Community/School Cooperation

The complex nature of the project calls for careful planning. It is not the type of program that can be set up overnight. The person or persons involved in organizing such a venture must realize that in the building process they will be suggesting some structural changes, not only for education but for the agencies as well. Traditional approaches die hard. New approaches have to be crystal clear in their logic and feasibility. But besides structural change, there are attitudes that have to be developed. Parents, teachers, students, and agency professionals have to be reached and educated with regard to the value of the proposal. Because of this, we are suggesting that the following steps be taken in setting up the program:

A Make a thorough Needs Assessment of the school and the neighborhood it services. (This should be an academic and socioeconomic assessment.

1. Seek assistance from the city planning commission.
2. Break your neighborhood down by census tract and study population, ethnic makeup, family size, income, welfare, etc.
3. Ask your probation department to do an analysis of the juvenile delinquency problem in your neighborhood--indicating number of referrals and comparing it with other areas in the county.
4. Study your school's disciplinary referrals, attendance records, and any other sources that will give you a handle on the exact nature of the problems at your school.

B After a careful study of the facts, isolate the major problem areas. Clarify in your own mind the relationship of those problems to the home, neighborhood, and school. Document everything.

1. Study the possible relationship of social service, probation, police, health, etc., to these problems.
2. Estimate the actual number of social workers, probation officers, etc., working with your schools, students, and families.

3. Determine whether there has been good communication or poor communication between the school and with these agencies. Is there presently a good working relationship with the agency representatives working in the neighborhood? Do they feel free to come into the school and discuss the family's problem with counselors or administrators? Do you see duplication of services?

C

In order that you can convincingly present the problem and your proposed solution, make sure that you fully understand and accept the community education approach and can support involvement of all the possible components that are a part of it.

1. Study materials about community education and community schools. Contact NSRN for additional materials.

2. Have informal discussions with your own colleagues or people you are familiar with in the neighborhood. Dialogue helps to clarify things.

D

Identify a small nucleus of school staff who might be willing to work with you in developing and implementing the project.

1. A strong, supportive commitment from school administrators is a must. It gives you a commitment from your school as well as a liaison to the district level of administration.

2. Counselors should be a natural source of support. Therefore, you should identify those sympathetic to wider involvement and interagency cooperation.

E

With your knowledge of the facts, some staff support from the school, and an understanding of the kind of program you want, your next step will be to identify parents within the neighborhood to support and participate in the new program.

1. These parents will generally be recognized leaders within the neighborhood. Convince them to support your proposed program and ask them to join you in your efforts. They can begin the process of clarifying the project to other residents of the neighborhood.

2. Join with parent leaders in explaining and seeking approval of the project from parent-teacher associations and any other recognized community groups.

F Back your proposed project up with parent, teacher, and student surveys. Clarify the program to each of these groups, asking them to make their own needs assessment of the school and neighborhood.

1. This can be done by setting up some simple questionnaires.

G Initiate formal communication with the agencies on the nature of your proposal.

1. Send out invitations for a general meeting of your neighborhood supporters--educators and residents--and representatives from the major and minor agencies in the community. The purpose will be to explain and discuss the proposal.
2. Seek approval from the agencies and begin building the project's support system by asking for specific written commitments from each agency. In other words, each agency should indicate what kind of assistance they can offer to the program. They can do this in the form of a formal written letter.
3. Individual meetings should be held with directors of the major agencies--probation, social service, police, health, etc., to see if arrangements could be worked out to house representatives from their respective agencies under the roof of the school.

H Seek interagency arrangements that could mean thousands of dollars of extra services to the school.

1. To facilitate school/agency cooperation, make adequate office space available in the school.
2. The closer agency staff are located to the counseling department, the better. This encourages informal dialogue as well as joint staffing on certain cases.

I Administrators should appoint or hire a special counselor to coordinate the project.

1. The counselor should be freed not only to coordinate the team, but also to work with hard-core crisis students and to develop parent and teacher training courses.

2. The counselor in charge has an ongoing function of identifying and involving community resources for the school and its students.

3. The person selected should be resourceful, capable, and with much experience in working with young people.

J — A neighborhood advisory board should be set up to insure continual community input and support.

K — The final step will be up to the coordinator and the team to develop their strategies for working together.

1. A summer workshop should be conducted in order to make preparations for the school year. Such items as identifying crisis students, methods of referrals, areas of concern, recordkeeping, meetings, staffing, and in-service programs all have to be discussed and procedures established.

Course 7 - The Community as a Problem-Solving Resource

Module 7.3 - School/Community Links: Parents and Volunteers

Total Time 1 hour

Module Summary

This module explores the rationale for cooperation and involvement between schools, parents, and other adult volunteers in the community; the range and types of parent/volunteer programs; the elements of several successful programs; the steps in setting up and maintaining an effective school volunteer program; the obstacles that schools, parents, and other community adults encounter in trying to work together; and outreach techniques that can assist in overcoming these obstacles.

Activity/Content Summary	Time
1. Rationale for Parent and Adult Volunteer Involvement Participants explore why parents, community members, and schools should interact and look at different types of parent/volunteer groups. A. Who Should Be Involved? B. Why Involve Parents? C. Who Benefits from Adult Involvement? D. Types of Parent and Volunteer Involvement	5 min.
2. Parent/Volunteer Programs The key elements of four successful parent programs are introduced. If time permits, other programs will be cited as well. A. What Can Parents and Volunteers Do? B. What Are Parents and Adult Volunteers Doing?	10 min.
3. Obstacles to Parent/Volunteer Involvement and Outreach Techniques Obstacles to parent and adult volunteer involvement in the schools are presented and examined by participants.	15 min.
4. Organizing Parent and Volunteer Involvement Programs Methods for developing and organizing parent programs are discussed.	15 min.

Activity/Content Summary	Time
A. Preliminary Steps	
B. Recruiting	
C. Screening, Interviewing, and Placement	
D. Orientation and Training	
5. Strategies for Sustaining Volunteer Interest	10 min.
Methods for curtailing parent dropout rate and sustaining interest are presented.	
A. Overview	
B. Strategies	
6. Wrap-Up	5 min.

About the Module

Course 7 - The Community as a Problem-Solving Resource

Module 7.3 - School/Community Links: Parents and Volunteers

Objectives

Participants will be able to--

1. Describe a number of actual school/parent volunteer programs
2. Identify several obstacles to parent and adult volunteer involvement in school programs
3. Describe techniques that can be used to overcome obstacles to volunteer involvement
4. Enumerate the major steps involved in organizing and maintaining a parent/volunteer program within a school.

Description of Materials

Transparencies

7.3.1 - 7.3.2 Transparencies illustrate the range of parent/school programs and four obstacles to parent/other adult involvement.

Participant Worksheet

7.3.1 Major Obstacles to Parent/Volunteer Involvement

Background Materials

7.3.1	Written Synopses of Four Effective Parent/Volunteer Programs
7.3.2	Summary of Methods/Procedures for Organizing and Maintaining a School-Based Volunteer Program
7.3.3	Techniques for Overcoming Obstacles

Resource Materials

R.7.3.1	Bibliography for Parent Involvement (from Flint Community Schools Program, Flint, Michigan)
R.7.3.2	NSRN Bibliography and Resource List for Parent/Volunteer Involvement
R.7.3.3	Organizational Resource List

Course 7 - The Community as a Problem-Solving Resource

Module 7.3 - School/Community Links: Parents and Volunteers

Worksheet I-D 7.3.1

Participant Worksheet

Major Obstacles to Parent/Volunteer Involvement

- Teacher and administrator reluctance to accept additional responsibility (planning, coordinating, maintaining a parent program)
- Dramatic increase in numbers of working mothers
- Distrust on the part of parents, particularly lower income parents, of school authorities
- Ineffective (or nonexistent) recruitment strategies on the part of schools
- Lack of communication channels or contact between parents and schools
- Lack of transportation for parents to commute to and from school, particularly in situations where students are bussed to schools miles from home
- Administrator and teacher fears of being judged by parents
- Administrator and teacher fears of parent "troublemakers" who might vent frustrations in a counterproductive way
- Economic factors which force parents to be preoccupied with basic survival needs ahead of anything else--such as school environment
- Lack of teacher training on how to use parent volunteers effectively
- Lack of training for parents to develop skills for more specialized kinds of functions in the schools
- Ineffective or nonexistent school board coordination of parent/volunteer programs

Course 7 - The Community as a Problem-Solving Resource

Module 7.3 - School/Community Links: Parents and Volunteers

Background I-D 7.3.1

Written Synopses of Four Effective Parent/Volunteer Programs

Example 1: NORTHWEST YOUTH OUTREACH PROGRAM, YMCA, CHICAGO, ILLINOIS

Steinmetz High School -- Parents/Students/School Staff Advisory Group

The Northwest Youth Outreach Program (NYOP) in Chicago, part of the YMCA, is an activist drug treatment organization which uses an outreach model to get youth into treatment. The NYOP is accustomed to getting numerous requests for technical assistance in drug program development from organizations, community groups, and agencies in Chicago.

In 1974 NYOP got a request from Steinmetz High School for assistance in putting together a heterogeneous advisory group that would provide the high school administration with drug abuse policy recommendations that could be realistically implemented. Steinmetz at that time was experiencing an increase in student drug abuse with all the attendant problems. NYOP responded by establishing an advisory group composed of five school personnel, five parents, and five students and then training the group to increase awareness about drugs and attitudes concerning drug abuse. The six-week training course was conducted in the evenings at a local church. The training fostered understanding of the issues and problems in the drug abuse arena, which helped the group members formulate policy recommendations and conceptualize strategies for dealing with students in trouble. The advisory group developed a set of guidelines for dealing with student drug offenders: the primary focus was to increase school/community agency cooperation and collaboration. The guidelines, which reflected a blend of parent, student, and school staff attitudes and ideas, were adopted, resulting in better control of the drug problem. The advisory group also proposed the development of a school Concern Room to provide counseling to students referred as disciplinary problems and to any other students in need of advice or counseling. The counselors were a mix of parents, teachers, and the students themselves.

The Concern Room was closed after one year (1974-75), however, because the NYOP was unable to provide the sustained professional supervision of peer/parent/teacher counseling activities that was really necessary. Without NYOP's close professional-level monitoring, the volunteer counselors justifiably felt that they could no longer provide services effectively.

However, the process of implementing the Concern Room counseling program had the effect of increasing solidarity among the school personnel, students, and parents. Students and teachers, in particular, began to take each other needs and concerns more seriously. The students became aware of the bureaucratic difficulties faced by school staff when trying to implement new programs or innovative ideas. Many students with disciplinary histories actually acted in an advisory capacity for the Concern Room, providing valuable input into counseling programs for others with emotional or behavioral problems. Ultimately, the feelings of allegiance and pride in the school were greatly increased and the incidence of disruptive behavior significantly reduced. No actual evaluative impact study was conducted to statistically document these observed changes.

Example 2: CHICAGO REGION PTA

Parent Observers Program

In 1970, in response to the growing problem of substance abuse, vandalism, and gang warfare on school grounds within the 20th Police District, Police Captain John Jemilo initiated the Parent Observer Program in collaboration with the PTAs of Amundsen High School, Budlong School, Chappell School, McPherson School, and Waters School. The program was first piloted in School District 3, and because of its success, it was subsequently adopted by a number of other districts over the next six years. The purpose of the program was to maintain a steady watch on school grounds after school hours, when trouble was most likely to occur. From the hours of 3:00 or 4:00 p.m. in the afternoon to 1:00 or 2:00 a.m. in the morning, volunteer PTA parents were assigned to "observation posts." Sitting in cars near or on school premises or in nearby houses, they kept an eye out for any suspicious or unusual activity. In the event that parents noticed anything unusual they were to call the District police from the nearest phone, following up with an incident report forwarded to the police for analysis. Any beer drinking, fighting, loitering, noise, etc., was to be reported; however, observers were firmly instructed by the PTA groups and police never to intervene in any incident. Close cooperation between the PTA groups and the District police made the program feasible and eventually quite successful in reducing vandalism and violence on school property within a number of school districts.

To organize the effort the concerned PTA groups established a Safety Committee, composed of about six or seven PTA volunteers, responsible for recruiting, orienting, and coordinating the volunteer parent observers. The actual steps taken by the Safety Committee in recruiting and deploying parent observers are as follows:

1. Conducted community meetings to overview program, showed photos of vandalized schools, and thus recruited volunteers and gained community support.

2. Contacted interested parents by mail and phone.

3. Scheduled parent observers on a day-by-day basis, notifying them one week in advance of their schedules.

4. Distributed and explained Instruction Sheet (see attached) to all parent observers.

5. Distributed Report Sheet (see attached) to be completed and returned to the Safety Committee by each parent observer after observer shift.

6. Made reminder calls to scheduled parent observers one week in advance of scheduled shift.

7. Rescheduled in the event of parents' absence or inability to make their shifts.

8. Distributed names/phone numbers of all Safety Committee members to parent observers.

Although no formal evaluative study was conducted, the program seemed to be effective in reducing litter, graffiti, violence, and vandalism on school property, and fewer calls were made to the police by neighborhood residents complaining of noise or disturbances. Although the program met with success, it was only in effect in the various districts when the community felt the need for it. Since 1976 the program has not been active, apparently because of flagging parent interest.

Another significant result of this program is that Chicago has passed an ordinance which enables police to make arrests on school grounds. A sign is posted on school grounds prohibiting entrance between 9:30 p.m. and 6:00 a.m. In effect, a curfew has been established. Previously without the imposed curfew, police had to file a complaint with the Board of Education to get permission to make arrests on school property. Now this ineffectual, time-consuming process has been abandoned, and immediate police confrontation of curfew violators trespassing on school property is possible.

PILOT SAFETY PROGRAM
DESCRIPTION OF SAFETY COMMITTEE DUTIES

The Safety Committee should consist of five to eight people or as many as needed to divide the work. One person should be the chairman and could be appointed by the PTA president.

Their duties will consist of--

1. Contacting interested people by phone or other means.

2. Schedule the parent observers on a day-by-day basis, booking at least one week in advance. The program should be completed before summer vacation.

3. See that each parent observer receives an instruction sheet and understands it.

4. See that each parent observer also receives a report sheet to be filled out and returned to the Chairman of the Safety Committee 48 hours after time of duty. The report should be filled out even if there was no particular problem during the time served.

5. A reminder card or phone call should be made by a member of the Safety Committee one week in advance. Names should be divided among the committee.

6. The Safety Committee should request to be notified if any observer is unable to serve his designated time so that someone else might be assigned.

7. The Safety Chairman should be responsible for all report sheets and see that they are turned over to the PTA PRESIDENT so that there might be an evaluation of the program in September.

8. A list of names and phone numbers of the Safety Committee should be given to each parent observer.

PILOT SAFETY PROGRAM
INSTRUCTION SHEET

When it is necessary to call the police, dial PO5-1313, the central police number (this call is free of charge.)

1. Ask for the name of the officer you are speaking to. (Calls at this number are tape recorded.)
    a. If the police do not arrive within a reasonable amount of time (15 to 20 minutes), then call 744-8330. This is Foster Ave., the 20th district. Ask the officer to whom you speak, for his name and star number. Then politely and accurately explain you have received no answer to the PO5-1313 number and would he please check on the call.
2. Describe the problem accurately as you see it. Estimate how many are involved and if this is an emergency (such as breaking into the school or gang harassment.)
3. Give your name and state that you are a parent observer from your school.
4. Remain until the police arrive to give further information.
5. You are not to interfere, stop the incident, talk to those involved, or endanger yourself in any way.
6. Try to jot down a description of troublemakers on your report sheet.
7. Whenever possible when leaving your house, walk or drive by the playground to see what is happening. If you see a problem, report it by following the above instructions and then report it to the Safety Committee.
8. REMEMBER: BE NOSEY, BUT DON'T BE FOOLISH.
9. Don't forget to return your report sheet to the Safety Committee.
10. There is a telephone in the Fieldhouse to make your call. If you are operating out of your car after 9:00 p.m., note that there is an outside telephone at ______________________________

FIELDHOUSE CLOSES AT 9:00 p.m. BUT PLAYGROUND LIGHTS SHOULD REMAIN ON UNTIL 1:00 a.m. Curfew for 17 and under is 10:30 p.m. during the week and 11:30 p.m. on the weekend.

PILOT SAFETY PROGRAM
REPORT SHEET

DATE______________________ DAY________________________ TIME ARRIVAL______________

NAME______________________ PHONE______________________ DEPARTURE________________

DID YOU SEE ANY UNUSUAL ACTIVITY? YES_____ NO_____

WHAT WAS THE PROBLEM, DESCRIBE BRIEFLY, SPECIFIC TIME____________________

____

____

Please use back of sheet if you need more room.

HOW MANY WERE INVOLVED______________________ BOYS_____ GIRLS_____

DID YOU SEE:

DRINKING

DRUG ABUSE WHAT KIND____________________________

FIGHTING

HARASSMENT

ROBBERY

VANDALISM DESCRIBE____

____

OTHER:

DESCRIPTION OF TROUBLEMAKERS

1. Type of clothing____
2. Color of clothing____
3. Age______
4. Height and weight____
5. Name, if possible____
6. Car, year, make, color____
7. License No.____

Other____

Did you find it necessary to call the police? YES_____ NO_____

IF SO, PLEASE CHECK

PO5-1313_____ or 744-8330_____ or both_____

Name of officer you spoke to______________________________Star No.______________

How long did it take for the police to arrive________________________________

SQUAD CAR NO.______________________________

Were you satisfied with the way the call was answered? YES_____ NO_____

If not, why:____

____

PLEASE STATE FURTHER REMARKS ON THE BACK OF THIS SHEET.

PLEASE RETURN YOUR REPORT TO THE SAFETY COMMITTEE. THANK YOU.

Example 3: VOLUNTEER LISTENER PROGRAM, WEST CHESTER, PENNSYLVANIA

East Bradford Elementary School

An elementary student approached Elaine Samans, guidance counselor at East Bradford Elementary School and said, "I'll be bad today. Will you see me?"

Ms. Samans had grappled with the problem of how to reach more children who were not functioning well in school. She counseled many students individually and conducted group guidance activities, but she realized that many more children could benefit by individual attention from a caring adult.

Three years ago five mothers who had been members of a parent education group led by Ms. Samans asked if they could help in the school guidance program, and the Volunteer Listener Program was born. Ms. Samans pairs Volunteer Listeners with children who are insecure, withdrawn, or underachieving. This opportunity to relate to an adult friend gives many children an environment which helps them to find within themselves the strength and ability to improve.

The qualities Ms. Samans looks for in a Volunteer Listener are the ability to give the child empathy (not sympathy),to remain calm, to persevere, to respect the rules of confidentiality, and to be non-judgmental in relating to the child.

Ms. Samans offers training to the Listeners before they begin service and throughout the year. Listeners learn to sharpen communication skills and to hear the message behind the words. They learn how to give positive, non-threatening feedback to the child without put-downs. Volunteer Listeners learn to set limits. They acknowledge the child's wishes, yet help the child to respect the limits of reality. If a Listener notices that a child seems unusually upset or exhibits a marked behavior change, Ms. Samans is notified as soon as possible so that she can take further steps to help the child.

The Listener's role with the child is specific and school-based. Listeners are discouraged from getting involved in the child's life beyond school so as not to intrude in the child's family life.

Each Listener-child pair spends one hour a week together. They jointly choose an activity, such as a game from the counselor's office or one brought from home. The schedule for each pair is arranged by mutual agreement among the Listener, the child's teacher, and the counselor. The Listener and child meet wherever space can be found--in an empty classroom, a corner of the library, or on the school grounds if the weather is nice.

Listeners sign in and out of the building. When a Listener is unable to come, she phones the counselor so the child and teacher can be notified. Children must meet with their Listeners during language arts or math time, and they must make up work missed when they are with the volunteers.

Ms. Samans identifies children who might benefit from the Listener Program during the first two months of the school year, and during this time she offers training to the volunteers so that weekly volunteer-child sessions can begin about November 1. The sessions continue until the beginning of June or until a child is transferred. In one instance, a little girl was transferred to a special class in a nearby school and arrangements were made for the Listener to continue to meet with her in the new school.

Volunteer Listeners continue to meet as a group with Ms. Samans once a month. Volunteers describe their sessions as "group therapy for Listeners" and say they give and receive moral support from each other. They raise questions, resolve problems and enhance their listening skills. Volunteer Listeners realize that they cannot always help a child to change--but they also see many children improve in self-image and in achievement.

Nine boys and four girls from all grade levels were in the Listener Program at East Bradford in 1977-78. A majority came from broken homes. Six children showed marked improvement during the year; others have more serious problems which will require more time to resolve.

The Listeners are mothers who are busy and involved in the community. They include a former domestic worker, a factory worker, and a former director of a day care center who has a master's degree in elementary guidance counseling.

Ms. Patricia Burton, one of East Bradford's 35 volunteers, is volunteer chairperson. She recruits and works with Listeners and with other volunteers who serve as tutors, resource speakers and aides in the library and clinic.

Source: "I'll Be Bad Today, Will You See Me?" by Elaine Samans, School Guidance Counselor, West Chester, Pennsylvania.

Example 4: A SOUTHEASTERN CITY

Parent Minicourses

In response to increased student violence during desegration efforts in 1972, the city's Office on Race Relations began a program of human relations minicourses in a number of the district's secondary schools. About one-sixth of the district's secondary schools became involved. The premise was that human relations classes would give students an opportunity to learn about each other and share concerns that ultimately would result in improved students' attitudes.

The program was coordinated in each school by an administrator or supervising teacher. A questionnaire was distributed to students in the schools describing the program and asking them what courses they would be interested in in lieu of study hall. Parents and teachers also received a questionnaire to determine which courses they could teach.

About 25 percent of teachers in all schools offered the minicourses along with a large number of parent volunteers. No credit was given the students; no compensation was offered to teachers or parent volunteers. Although gaining parent cooperation was initially difficult, it has been a key element in the success of the program.

The minicourses were scheduled during almost every period during the school day. The classes, limited to 30 students, lasted from several weeks to a full school year. Students were permitted to take as many minicourses as would fit into their study hall time.

Courses covered such topics as peer-peer relations, parent relations, teacher-student relations, prejudices, school-community relations, exploration of school and board policies, careers, crafts, automobile repair. Evaluation questionnaires distributed at the end of each course indicated that the majority of students were highly enthusiastic.

Course 7 - The Community as a Problem-Solving Resource

Module 7.3 - School/Community Links: Parents and Volunteers

Background I-D 7.3.2

Background Materials

Summary of Methods/Procedures for Organizing and Maintaining a School-Based Volunteer Program

Preliminary Steps

Before the first volunteer is even recruited, schools should take the following 17 steps:

- Examine needs

  --(how can volunteers be directed in their efforts to reduce vandalism and violence?)

- Investigate school climate

  --(e.g., is there resistance?)

- Meet with all groups you will want to involve in the program

  --(e.g., parent groups may include PTAs, Junior League, business and professional women's clubs, etc.)

- Assess your resources

  --(e.g., community resources)

- Set up an advisory committee involving all groups whose support you will be getting
- Select goals for the program with specific, measurable objectives
- Establish a system for recording volunteer hours, contributions
- Decide on organizational structure

  --(e.g., who will coordinate volunteer program?, etc.)

- Write job descriptions for all tasks for which volunteers will be sought

  --(e.g., what kind of functions will parent hall security aides perform? How many are needed at what times?)

- Get written school board support for your school volunteer program
- Check with the superintendent regarding health requirements for volunteers

- Check on other state or local policy matters regarding volunteers

  --(e.g., may parents work in their own child's classroom?)
- Develop recruitment literature
- Plan recruiting strategies

  --(e.g., find out how other community agencies get volunteers)
- Plan a system for maintaining volunteer morale (mention that film clips will show one method of maintaining interest)
- Plan for a continuing evaluation of the program
- Establish a communications system

  --(e.g., disseminate a newsletter, produce an annual report).

Recruiting

Recruiting is the next phase in organizing a volunteer program. There are a number of general strategies that can be employed. And shortly we will brainstorm some outreach techniques that can be particularly successful in recruiting parents.

Methods for recruiting include--

- Sending teacher/volunteer teams to service clubs, church groups, community organizations, and agencies to recruit through presentations (slides/films are effective supports). The PTA is an excellent source of parent volunteers
- Submitting feature articles to local newspapers on volunteer activites (e.g., those activities effective in combatting school violence and vandalism)
- Disseminating bumper stickers
- Making public service announcements on radio and TV, using volunteer as announcer
- Distributing leaflets with return coupons at shopping malls, doctors' and dentists' offices, subway stations, etc.
- Providing public libraries with posters and bookmarks
- Pitching presentations to volunteerism providing career exploration opportunities
- Exploring prospective volunteers' interest
- Matching volunteers' skills, interests, experience with program needs. Don't overlook the "home-bound" volunteer
- Making contact with the Voluntary Action Center (VAC) in your community, if you have one.

Screening, Interviewing, and Placement

Screening, interviewing, and placement is the next critical phase of organizing the program. Important considerations are--

- Matching volunteers' skills, aptitudes, and interests with school needs (during screening and interviewing)
- Initiating "trial" placements, to optimize the fit between volunteer and assignment
- Obtaining written commitments from volunteers stating days and hours they expect to work
- Establishing times for communication between volunteer coordinator and individual volunteers

Orientation and Training

Orientation and training provide the volunteer with an understanding of the goals and objectives of the program and greater self-confidence and ease in performing assigned tasks.

Orientation should give the volunteer--

- Understanding of goals and policies of the school and the volunteer program
- Procedures for signing in and out, parking, maintaining confidentiality
- Familiarity with school building layout
- Introductions to key school administrators and staff members

Training, as distinct from orientation, can be in the form of--

- In-service, or on-the-job training
- Preservice, or advance, training for special skills

In-service training should give volunteers the opportunity to discuss mutual problems and concerns and to actually learn techniques for improving job skills.

Maintaining Volunteer Interest

A successful volunteer program must foster a sense of belonging and provide rewards that encourage the continuing participation of volunteers. This is particularly true for busy, often over-committed parents. The volunteer coordinator can employ a number of strategies to maintain volunteer interest and participation:

- Conduct annual volunteer recognition events--

  --Volunteers in West Chester, Pennsylvania, who give regular service for five or more continuous months get a card which admits them to all school-sponsored activities, including plays and sports events

--Students at Bren Mar Park School in Fairfax County, Virginia, decorated a white sheet with thank-yous in bright magic markers. The sheet became the tablecloth for the annual volunteer awards ceremony

--A restaurant in Cedar Rapids, Iowa, treated the community's school volunteer coordinators to dessert and coffee

- Present certificates of recognition signed by school system leaders or state boards of education
- Provide continuous positive feedback with praise for specific activities
- Emphasize the job market value of learning new skills and applying existing skills
- Offer opportunities for increased responsibilities and personal development
- Submit feature articles to local newspapers on work of volunteers
- Nominate exceptional volunteers for awards in the community
- Publish a school volunteer newsletter and share it with the community (civic associations, city council, etc.)
- Reward outstanding volunteers with "scholarships" to workshops and conferences that will advance their special skills.

Course 7 - The Community as a Problem-Solving Resource

Module 7.3 - School/Community Links: Parents and Volunteers

Background I-D 7.3.3

Background Materials

Techniques for Overcoming Obstacles

- The Northern Kansas City, Missouri, school system holds an annual "share fair" (workshops, displays, etc.) at a local shopping mall to promote parent/community awareness of and involvement in school educational programs.
- The North Kansas City, Missouri, school system periodically holds Saturday "Community Days"--or minifairs--on school grounds, at which time school personnel and parents are able to talk informally.
- The Northern Kansas City, Missouri, school system has organized school/community relations committees, composed of parents, interested citizens, administrators, and teachers, which meet at least once every 9 weeks to discuss mutual concerns, problems and issues.
- The Northern Kansas City, Missouri, school system has initiated "parent coffees". Interested parents are to meet with school board officials every Friday over coffee to discuss concerns and make recommendations.
- A variation of "parent coffees" held at the school board is "parent coffees" held in parent homes with a school principal or school board member in attendance.
- One high school within the Dallas Independent School District has initiated a program of "home visits". Teachers make visits to homes to inform parents of their child's progress, as well as school policies, procedures, and programs.
- In one community within the Dallas Independent School District, five school community information centers were established. Parents come to the conveniently located centers to get information on school activities, programs, policies and procedures.
- The Fairfax County, Virginia, School System's School Community Relations Division has initiated the sending out of FAMILY GRAMS five times a year to parents and families, notifying them of the school calendar of events, test scores, competency-based educational standards, answers to frequently asked questions, new program information, and a rumor control phone number.

- School boards can hire professionals to train parents and other volunteers for specialized activities and programs within the schools. This can overcome resistance or reluctance on the part of individual schools in accepting parents and others as volunteers.
- Schools can routinely solicit for parent involvement/participation through periodic newsletters and bulletins sent to students' homes.
- School system representatives can make presentations to service organizations and clubs to enlist parent support and involvement, including PTAs.
- Schools can write short articles for local newspapers to drum up support/participation.
- Schools can tape public service announcements for local radio.
- Teachers can discuss with students the merits and advantages of community/parental involvement with the schools.
- The traditional parent-teacher conference should not be underestimated as a means of capturing parent interest and participation in school programs. A note can be sent home at the beginning of the year to introduce teachers and note scheduling possibilities for conferences with parents.
- Schools can ask PTAs to call on parents new to a school neighborhood to welcome them, answer questions, and encourage involvement.
- Schools can prepare a handbook for parent involvement, outlining ways for parents to get involved.
- Schools can ask parents to cosponsor--with teachers--student clubs and activities.

Course 7 - The Community as a Problem-Solving Resource

Module 7.4 - Winning Agency/Business Support

Total Time 1 to 1½ hours

Module Summary

This module explores ways of proceeding to win agency/business support. Participants evaluate different approaches to garnering support. Discussion focuses on the benefits of and barriers to interagency cooperation and change. Special considerations in dealing with businesses are also discussed.

Activity/Content Summary	Time
1. Getting Interagency Cooperation Participants read Case I and in small groups of 5 or 6 and large groups discuss what was right and what was wrong about the procedures followed in the case. A. Small Group Activity: Case I B. Large Group Discussion: Case I	15 min.
2. Ways to Proceed: Case II Participants discuss Case II, focusing on recommended ways to proceed in dealing with agencies and businesses.	20 min.
3. Benefits and Barriers A. Overview: Benefits of Interagency Cooperation B. Discussion of Benefits C. A Major Barrier to Cooperation: Resistance to Change D. Overcoming Barriers and Resistance	40 min.
4. Special Considerations When Dealing with Businesses (Optional Discussion) Participants are introduced to the motivations underlying the willingness of businesses to cooperate with the schools. Things to keep in mind when approaching businesses are discussed. A. Business Interests B. Businesslike Approach	10-15 min.

Notes

About the Module

Course 7 - The Community as a Problem-Solving Resource

Module 7.4 - Winning Agency/Business Support

Objectives

Participants will be able to--

1. Discuss ways of proceeding to get agency/business support
2. Articulate benefits that schools and agencies/businesses can derive from cooperative ventures
3. Enumerate barriers to cooperation and change
4. Discuss ways of dealing with businesses to gain support.

Description of Materials

Transparency

7.4.1 Transparency illustrates the point of the minilecture.

Participant Worksheets

7.4.1 Case I
7.4.2 Case II

Background Materials

7.4.1 "Cooperation with the Community: Agencies, Businesses, and Organizations"
7.4.2 "Background of Interagency Coordination: A Working Paper"
7.4.3 School-Community Cooperation: Oakland's Adopt-A-School Program
7.4.4 Resistance to Change

Course 7 - The Community as a Problem-Solving Resource
Module 7.4 - Winning Agency/Business Support
Worksheet I-D 7.4.1

Participant Worksheet

Case I

Jordan Thomas, 30, the history teacher and track coach of Winburn High School (2,000 students in a community of 390,000) has become increasingly concerned over the use of drugs in the school. He knows members of his team are on drugs, and that more and more of his students are absent from class or are "not together" when they are in class. Students are often high in the morning and in some cases all day long.

He talks to the school guidance counselor, Michael Smith, about the problem. Smith replies that he can't do anything unless the students come to him. He says he's overworked as it is--the school needs at least three counselors, and he's working by himself. Smith adds that it is the parent's responsibility to stop drug usage, not the school's.

Jordan next contacts Principal Gail Watson who displays a somewhat similar attitude. Watson acknowledges the problem, but says she doesn't know what to do about it. Funding is not available for programs, and the school cannot afford to hire additional personnel or counselors for a few students with problems. She adds that if Jordan comes up with any workable solutions to let her know.

With that cue, Jordan decides to look for outside help. He feels the problem is serious and that he has a responsibility to do something about it. While picking up his friend Sarah from work one afternoon, he notices a sign for the city Mental Health Clinic. The next afternoon after school, he heads for the clinic and asks to see the director. After a 20-minute wait, he is ushered into the director's comfortable office and presents his case.

He states that the school is in desperate shape and needs a minimum of three or four full-time counselors and staff to help with the student drug problem. He says that the school counselor is overworked and doesn't seem to be aware of the seriousness or prevalence of the problem. Jordan points out to the director that if his agency is interested in social problems, they should work in the school. The director states that he is puzzled and wonders why Jordan has contacted him. His agency is not funded for that kind of counseling project. They rarely treat outpatients. They do counsel drug users, but usually adults, and only the chronic user with a severe problem.

Jordan responds that the situation at the school is more severe than many people would acknowledge. He stresses that if the school is a part of the community the agency should be willing to cooperate. Students are as important a part of the community as the adults, he says--why couldn't funding be channeled to them?

The clinic director suggests that Jordan contact the Community Clinic for counselors. Although the clinic's counselors are not certified therapists, they have worked with students before. Jordan replies that counselors who aren't professionals wouldn't work in the school. "We have kids who really need help, and they need counseling from the best kind of professionals there are," he replies. The director finally suggests that perhaps one counselor could work one half-day at most. Jordan replies that one half-day is nothing in the face of the problem.

The two part and both agree to think more about the situation and talk the following week.

The next day Jordan calls a friend of his who has done some work with a group called the "Mind's Eye." Jordan doesn't know who they are, but knows his friend Tim was writing about drug use at one point. Tim says that the group had researched and written some articles about drug use in teenagers about two years ago and that some materials were "lying around" somewhere. He suggests that Jordan contact Liv Olson, director of the project, for more information, and says he'll be glad to tell her that Jordan will call. Jordan thanks him and calls Liv later. They agree to meet in several days.

Participant Worksheet

Course 7 - The Community as a Problem-Solving Resource

Module 7.4 - Winning Agency/Business Support

Worksheet I-D 7.4.2

Case II

Jordan Thomas, 30, history teacher and track coach at Winburn High School (2,000 students in a community of 390,000 in the midwest), has approached the high school principal to do something about the drug problem in the school. Thomas says students need counseling, and that the school also needs a drug education program for all students. At his request, Principal Gail Watson has gotten together a group of people (two students, the guidance counselor, Jordan, and a student's father--who is head of the local Lion's club and a lawyer) to discuss the problem and the resolution.

The group decides that something needs to be done and that community support is needed. They decide to investigate the possibilities of outside help. Watson heads up the "team." She calls the local health and welfare planning board to find out about outside agencies that might help in the problem. She is given a list of six agencies that "might have something to do with drugs." Watson calls the health and welfare agency back and asks for an appointment with their director. At their meeting, Watson gets pertinent information about each agency--what it does, how it receives its funding, and how many of its personnel are involved with drug-related cases. She notes all data and reports back to the "team" what has been discovered.

Based on the information, the team makes some decisions. After some debate, they clarify what they need. They decide they want (1) some kind of education program in the schools--and maybe just some help in setting it up--some kind of advisory team; (2) some kind of counseling available for students; and (3) the counseling to be voluntary and confidential.

Research on the agencies indicates this:

- The local mental health clinic seems to have about six counselors who deal with drug-related cases, although they are generally concerned with alcoholism in adults. They seem to have very limited services for outreach work--they prefer for clients to come to their offices. Their funding has just been cut, or is about to be.

- The community clinic doesn't seem to have certified therapists. They are willing to sponsor a program at the school and have worked with students before in setting up peer counseling and in doing group drug counseling.

- The third organization, the "Mind's Eye," has some funding for publications--although how much is not clear. They do have their own printing press and may have some printed materials that could be used as part of an educational program.

The team clarifies what they want. They decide to contact each organization and present a plan for consideration. The Superintendent of Schools, Norman Fell, contacts the directors at all three agencies and arranges appointments for the following week.

The next week, the members of the team and the superintendent approach the Mental Health Clinic. They present their problem to the director. They say they have a drug problem in the school and need some help in dealing with it. Fell points out that he realizes that the agency doesn't deal with school problems, but wonders if something can be worked out. Clinic Director Tom Kirsch says that they have no funding for such a project. But he has two suggestions. First of all, one of their counselors has worked with younger people and has some experience in crisis counseling. Maybe once a week, the counselor could meet on Friday afternoons with a group of students with severe problems--but he could offer no private counseling. He would be willing to offer services for six weeks. Secondly, a group called the Community Clinic has people who work with younger drug cases. Kirsch recommends they contact them. The "team" responds that they are in the process of contacting the Community Clinic and asks if on a short-term basis the Mental Health's professional counselor could work with school counselors and others to set up a program. Perhaps the first four Fridays could be used for organizational time. Then, the next four Fridays could be used for actually implementing the project. The superintendent then tells Kirsch that if they can come to some kind of agreement to clearly establish a program he would approach the school board and see if funding is available to pay for one counselor's salary for one half-day a week. The director replies that if the school will fund the counselor for one half-day, the clinic would probably be able to pick up another half-day's salary for the counselor. He says he'll have to recheck their funding allocations.

The two parties leave the meeting and agree to think more about the discussion and talk within the following week.

Next the "team" contacts the Community Clinic. Several counselors at the clinic meet with the school team. The clinic counselors are not certified therapists, which concerns the principal and superintendent. They wonder if the counselors are knowledgeable and competent. The counselors say they are willing to work in the school but demand some autonomy in their work. They want all counseling sessions to be confidential--no one keeping records of who attends or who doesn't. No administrators can be present at the sessions. They will deal with the administration directly. They ask what kind of funding they might receive from the school, and what else they might gain if they decide to become involved with the project. The superintendent says that he is not sure what kind of funding could be offered, but says that the clinic's credibility would be raised by working with the school. They agree that before beginning any work together they would clearly clarify their arrangement.

The "Mind's Eye" group is contacted. The "Mind's Eye" says that they have a printing press and drug-related information, but can't afford to just give away their materials. If paid for their materials, and labor, the group agrees to work with the school. Jon Adams, the lawyer of the team, volunteers to try and get funding from the Lion's club for the project. In addition, he notes that a good friend of his in the Kiwanis club may be interested in helping out also. Their meeting ends and both sides agree to talk in a week.

Course 7 - The Community as a Problem Solving Resource

Module 7.4 - Winning Agency/Business Support

Background I-D 7.4.1

Background Materials

COOPERATION WITH THE COMMUNITY: AGENCIES, BUSINESSES AND ORGANIZATIONS

Everyone in a community loses when the quality of education begins to deteriorate. If the schools become troubled, violence-ridden places where teachers spend their time keeping order rather than teaching, a mass exodus of middle-class families often results. As the quality of education deteriorates and the affluent and middle classes leave the area, the tax base is eroded, the real estate values in the neighborhood decline, and merchants lose business revenues and locate elsewhere--in an all too familiar pattern of disintegration experienced in virtually every city in the nation. When this occurs, the schools cannot keep good teachers, and they inherit a population of troubled students. Businesses in the area cannot attract a labor force, and social agencies find that they are confronting more and more difficult and discouraging situations. Since the ill effects touch every aspect of the neighborhood's cultural, social and economic life, every part of the community has a vested interest in the viability of the schools. School problems in a real way are community problems, and community efforts to support schools contribute to the well-being of the entire community.

This interdependence between the educational, social, business, and civic institutions of the community has been recognized in many areas of the country where joint school/community efforts have been initiated to help reduce and prevent problem behaviors in school, and, at the same time, help the community by assuring that the school can continue to fulfill its role effectively.

These joint school/community efforts have paid off. Vandalism has been virtually eliminated as a result of some efforts. Other results have included improved grade averages and marked reductions in truancy and suspensions for such causes as alcohol and drug abuse. Encouraging results have been obtained from small, volunteer-type programs in which parents or community members monitored the halls and playgrounds, ate in the lunchrooms, and kept watch on the facilities at times when the school was closed. The most far-reaching programs and the most noteworthy results were obtained when the school structure was changed to accommodate the concepts of community education. Using this approach, schools were opened to the whole community, and the community was asked to participate. School facilities were made available for social, educational, and recreational purposes; courses were offered for adults and social service agencies came into the schools to provide services to parents and youth alike. In the fully developed community schools, citizens participated through advisory councils. In addition, the education process for youth included presence of community members in the classrooms as resource persons and provision of learning experiences for youth outside the classrooms in the community's museums, factories, hospitals, laboratories, airports, and other resources.

These projects, both those of limited scope and the larger community school projects, serve the interests of the school and of the community. The innovators who started them have capitalized on this point as they involved social agencies, businesses, civic organizations and churches.

In this module, we will not dwell on the "why's" of community agency, business, and organization involvement and will focus instead on the "how's." A simple idea expresses the rationale for the cooperation: Mutual benefits can be derived from shared responsibilities and resources. This single concept is the key to facilitating cooperation from a wide spectrum of agencies, businesses, and organizations in the community that traditionally has had very little contact with the school. Once the community institutions become fully aware of the relationship between their well-being and that of the school, and are convinced that their own interests can be served by a new program, cooperation often is forthcoming.

The following sections will deal with how to involve two distinct targets for school/community cooperation: (1) social agencies and (2) business and organizations. Social agencies, like the school, belong to a service network funded by city, State and Federal funds. Both the schools and the agencies are part of the publicly supported socialization network. Civic organizations, business, and industry, on the other hand, are not publicly funded, and their interests often are much more specifically related to the institutional purpose. Although busineses and organizations do not share the official social service role of the agencies and school, they nonetheless have a common stake in the community and often make valuable contributions to school programs.

INTERAGENCY COOPERATION

From the viewpoint of the community, interagency cooperation--for our purposes defined as school social agency cooperation--is desirable to conserve economic resources and reduce tax burdens on citizens. In addition, needs of a community can change radically in this day and time. Thus, interagency cooperation often provides the flexibility needed to respond to change. Finally, many segments of the population have tremendous unmet needs that exceed the service delivery capability of any one agency. For example, an abused or neglected child may need shelter, psychiatric care, testing and assessment, remedial educational services, clothing, medical care, and any of a hundred other services. In most communities, there is no central point at which the services can be coordinated and delivered. The local school provides the logical point to bring all of the agencies together. The arguments in favor of interagency cooperation, thus, seem logical and rational. Developing the needed linkages and interagency agreements is not so simple.

The idealistic objectives of community education and the logic of involving a variety of agencies are hard to criticize. But reality often does not approach the ideal, and this new concept of shared responsibility often meets with firm resistance. One of the major sources of opposition is institutional resistance to change. The suggestion that change is needed may not meet with an enthusiastic response because it--

- o Implies that the agency or educational institution may be failing in its responsibilities
- o Evokes fear of the unknown
- o Threatens vested personal interests.

In addition, the agency or the school may mistrust or lack confidence in an "outsider" because of what is perceived as a lack of appreciation for specific agency or school problems. Staff insecurity also poses obstacles. "Turf" issues have prevented development of close working relationships between schools and human service agencies in many communities. Both schools and agencies have to be indicted for the failure, for both groups have erected barriers of territoriality and suspicion. In addition, educators traditionally have not sought help from the community. Often the weight of their responsibilities to represent parents and to be accountable for public funding has prevented cooperation, even when resources were available. However, this unitary approach is no longer feasible or workable, given current problems facing many schools.

Two basic tasks are required to develop cooperation between schools and social agencies. The first involves developing an awareness of the benefits an agency can derive from cooperation with a school in centralized delivery of services. The second is the negotiation of interagency agreements that serve as the formal basis for the cooperative effort. These two topics are discussed in the sections that follow.

Developing a Recognition of Mutual Benefits

Often obscured in issues that pose barriers to cooperation among community service delivery agencies is the fact that cooperation and coordination can bring real benefits to agencies able to achieve it. In economically troubled times, with growing voter resistance to "big spending," these benefits are of increasing importance.

In his new book, Creating Interagency Projects, Joseph Ringers, Jr., summarized the issues succinctly:

> To enter into a cooperative arrangement, an agency may be motivated by its inability to secure sufficient support for the continuance or expansion of its programs. It may also be motivated by pressures brought to bear by the community it serves or by the larger unit of which it is a part.

Through cooperation with schools, agencies can devise solutions to such problems as--

- Limited funds allocated for populations with many unmet needs
- Inadequate labor supply and staffing limitation
- High case loads
- Low client populations.

From the economic point of view, larger units usually are more efficient than small, fragmented ones. Support services and facilities are cheaper if the costs are shared among larger organizations. Costs usually can be reduced through cooperative agreements, because groups of agencies can provide services cheaper than individual organizations. Large cost savings also accrue when duplication in service delivery is reduced or eliminated.

Since both idealistic and practical arguments support the development of cooperative service delivery, school/community cooperation has been successfully implemented in many communities. The job of those concerned with reduction of problem behaviors in schools is to develop an awareness within the community that cooperation is both desirable and feasible. Agencies need to be approached from both altruistic and operational points of view. They need to see how their agency's interest will be protected while services to clients will be improved and expanded. The job has been done in neighborhoods throughout the nation. It can be done in your local community.

Forming Interagency Linkages

Interagency coordination, termed "interorganizing" by an expert on community organization, is formalized through interagency agreements.[1]

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[1] (Spergel, Irving A., Community Problem Solving: The Delinquency Example, (Chicago and London: The University of Chicago Press, 1969.)

Irving Spergel conceptualizes the formation of these agreements as a process that evolves from cooptation to cooperation and coordination and finally to planning. These phases of interorganizing may be viewed as overlapping phases, moving spirally from simple, situational, and individualistic efforts to complex, systematic and mutually interrelated processes. Figure 7.4.1 depicts their progression.

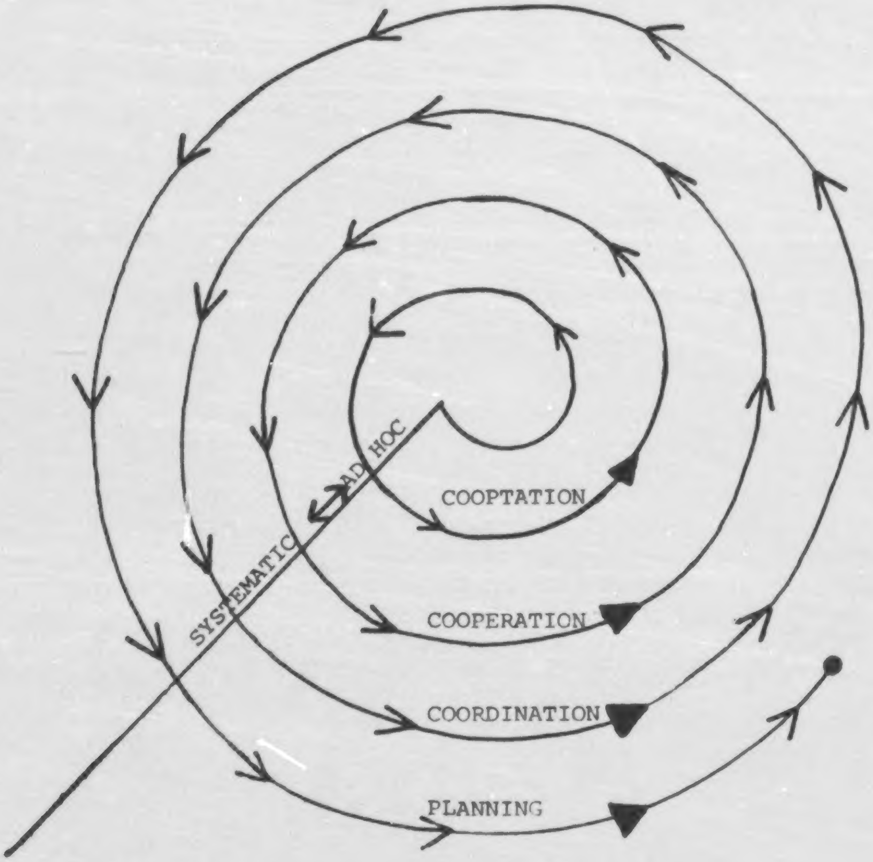
AD HOC
SYSTEMATIC
COOPTATION
COOPERATION
COORDINATION
PLANNING

Figure 7.4.1

The concept of cooptation is used here in its informal, reciprocal sense of control of another organization's program decisions. Possible cooptive processes are--

- Development of informal relationships between different agency personnel
- Exchange of information and resources
- Provision of complementary services. Cooptation may be regarded as the principal form of interorganizing existent in the community, since organizational interests tend to be competitive rather than cooperative.

The cooperative pattern of interorganizing arises when organizations are mutually or collectively concerned about a problem and act to achieve a common goal. This process is usually done on an ad hoc short-time basis.

Coordination, for our purposes, refers to a deliberate and systematic effort, usually over a substantial period of time, by which organizations seek their respective objectives in a manner which does no harm to, and indeed, often enhances, each other's program.

Planning is the most sophisticated form of interorganizing and provides for systematic collaboration by organizations to achieve long-term common ends.

These agreements on which these types of interactions are based may be formal contracts specifying services to be provided and making provision for sharing costs. On the other hand, they may be loose, informal arrangements in which one agrees verbally or in a brief letter to cooperate with another.

Joseph Ringers, Jr., has provided a convenient categorization of types of interagency agreements and linkages which is shown in Figure 7.4.1.

Figure 7.4.2

Types of Interagency Linkages

TYPE	KIND OF COOPERATION
AD HOC	Informal departmental agreements Information sharing Referral system Teaming Trade-offs
PROGRAM COORDINATION	Formal administrative agreements Colocation and coprogramming Resource loans--personnel, equipment, facilities Combine funding for joint project
RESTRUCTURING	Legislated by governing body Shift responsibilities Change in powers Reorganization

Analysis of this process suggests how schools can proceed in attempts to form interagency agreements with service delivery organizations within the community. Where no interaction has existed, the most practical approach is to aim at what Spergel deemed the cooptive level. This means sharing of resources, exchange of information, and informal contacts between professionals. This ad hoc type of linkage can then progress to cooperative efforts when a short-term goal is jointly tackled by the two organizations.

Coordination and planning stages form the most desirable and effective types of interagency linkages. When the interorganizing progresses to these stages, long-term efforts are possible, and the stability of the relationship is recognized by planning for future needs.

Schools that wish to implement joint service delivery with agencies from the community will most likely have to develop a plan for each of these phases in order to foster and nurture the linkage through each of these steps in what obviously is not an overnight process. Although it may begin with agreement at the administrative level, the interorganizing process will bring together midlevel professionals in a variety of activities--sharing information, working together on activities of mutual interest, and finally, joint planning. Each of the contacts, at both the top levels and the midlevel, strengthens the bonds and contributes to the evolution of the interorganizing process. In cases where the top level contacts and agreements are not supported by commitments from the midlevel, the cooperation will not occur; and it is important for a school that is trying to promote joint efforts to recognize that in this case the required support is missing and that it would be better to concentrate their efforts elsewhere.

To initiate the interorganizing process, the school must be able to clearly articulate the overall purpose of the joint undertaking and must be able to present very clearly the problem to be attacked, the methods to be used, and the expected outcomes. Agencies must be approached with clear statements of what benefits they will gain from the activity as well as what kinds of improvements in service delivery will result for their target population. Be prepared with clear and concise materials on each of these topics before you initiate contacts with an agency.

COOPERATION WITH BUSINESSES AND COMMUNITY ORGANIZATIONS

The interorganizing steps involved in working with social agencies also apply to the development of school programs with the business community and with civic, religious and service organizations. The primary difference is in approach. A school seeking assistance from a corporation or local citizen's groups must start with limited and informal activities, progress to larger more systematic efforts or programs, and finally engage in long-term planning. Developing cooperative relations with these nonpublicly funded groups also requires developing within the group or company an understanding of how it will benefit from the interaction. Businesses need to know how the program can contribute to their recruitment, public relations, and advertising programs. Civic organizations must realize how the project will advance their specific objectives. Religious organizations need assurance that the outcomes of cooperative efforts with a school will lead to one of the church's specifically targeted aims.

Schools that wish to develop such contacts have to view the process as evolutionary. Time and effort is required, and the productive phases of cooperative and planning of the interorganizing process can only be achieved after the early ad hoc activities have developed the needed trust and recognition of mutual benefits. Since the community's businesses, civic, and religious organizations that can assist a school have such diverse interests and differing objectives, the following sections deal with them separately, offering suggestions about special approaches that pay off with the individual types of organizations.

Special Approaches for the Business Community

In Oakland, California, a number of corporations participate in an Adopt-A-School program. The Clorox Company has sponsored one of these programs which provide funds for remedial reading teachers and expansion of library holdings. In a recent speech, Robert Shetterly, chief executive officer and chairman of the board of Clorox, described both the reasons for the corporation's involvement and the requirements of the company for its participation. Shetterly eloquently expressed much of what schools need to know about developing contacts with business and industry. His speech can be ordered from the National School Volunteer Program, 300 North Washington Street, Alexandria, Virginia 22312 (Ref: IB #42).

Approaches to Civic, Religious, and Service Organizations

Every community has an astounding variety of organizations. Each of these groups can be a valuable potential source of assistance to a school. However, each type of group needs to be approached with a message that relates their specific interests to the school's needs. The sections that follow group the types of organizations into generic categories and provides suggestions about how they may be approached.

Minority groups--Many of the troubled students in a school belong to one or another of America's numerous minority groups. The many organizations that have developed to advocate for their interest will have a natural concern for what happens to members of their groups in the schools. The Reverend Jesse Jackson's well-known national project called PUSH for Excellence is a good example. It is designed to enlist support of the entire black community to help develop pride in themselves and responsible attitudes toward education. Similar efforts can be undertaken locally, both with large, national advocacy organizations and with local neighborhood groups. These organizations have very focused interests, and schools that attempt to enlist their cooperation need to clarify issues with the groups in regard to the problems they are concerned with. Their issues and concerns need to be directly dealt with in the cooperative effort being proposed.

Professional associations or societies--These groups provide an especially fertile potential for cooperative efforts, since they represent the members of the community with technical expertise. Talents available through these groups extend from social workers, doctors, and psychiatrists who have the skills needed to attack a school's health and social problems to architects, engineers, and others who can advise on matters of design, construction, and physical security. The list extends to librarians, economists, dentists, and hundreds more, each of whom have valuable skills and knowledge that can be used in a school. They key in approaching these groups is relating the school's need to the special expertise provided by the association and working out a realistic plan for tapping the professional resources therein.

Religious organizations--Human problems often are the primary concerns of churches and religious organizations. As a result they can provide valuable assistance to a school. But schools need to be cautious in defining a role for religious groups: the sensitivity of public opinion regarding the church-state issue must be respected. Churches and interdenominational coalitions may provide space, materials, volunteers, information on community problems, and help in the dissemination of information about the school's needs. They also serve as well-respected linking mechanisms for reaching the community decisionmaking networks. Local ministers, priests, and rabbis can be valuable intermediaries between the school and other groups and organizations, since people generally find it difficult to refuse a clergyman's request. Enlisting help from churches and their leaders requires convincing them of the seriousness of the problem in human terms and presenting a practical plan for attacking it.

Colleges and universities--Few people realize the extent of the resources available in local colleges and universities. Graduate students abound who need placements in internships and subjects for research studies. Professors and other staff are hungry for research projects. Counseling offices and others who deal with incoming freshmen are aware of the problems that high school students bring with them to the campus. Therefore, they have a vested interest in helping schools head off some of the difficulties before students arrive on campus. The university also most likely has an office of grant supported research that can help identify sources of funding and put schools in touch with people who have research interests that might complement the school's project. For example, the university is the best source of assistance in the design of a project evaluation. There most likely are a number of highly qualified staff who will assist in evaluation design to further their experience in applied research. University staff and students also possess another valuable asset: time. Since they are not bound by the rigid constraints of the 8-hour work week, they often can be available to work with schools when other people would find it difficult to leave offices, factories, and shops.

Senior citizen groups--Approximately 10 percent of the nation's population is over 65. They often are lacking meaningful roles in society and are cut off from contact with younger people. Many schools have found them more than willing to participate in school/community projects. Elderly volunteers sometimes have problems, such as transportation, that have to be solved to ensure their availability, but if these difficulties are overcome, they have time, talent, expertise, and concern that can be used very effectively by the school.

Youth and student groups--These groups provide an obvious first line of contact for the school. They contain people with close and personal interest in the school. Their members often possess the zest and optimism about the possibility for improvement that new projects need. In addition, youths often feel that they lack meaningful participatory, decisionmaking, and planning roles in the community. A joint school and youth group activity can serve interests of both youth and the school.

Service and civic organizations--These groups can provide valuable fundraising skills and important assistance in marketing, public relations, management, and training. They have knowledge of the community and information on community issues. In addition, they have usually had experience with administration of volunteer programs. Examples of this type of group include the League of Women Voters, Junior League, Kiwanis, and Lions.

Other organizations--Although those types of groups described above constitute the major sources of assistance, don't overlook neighborhood associations, political parties, special client groups, and groups on military bases.

The problem of approaching and involving civic, religious, and service groups does not differ markedly from those faced with social agencies and businesses. They must be approached with clearly defined purposes, objectives, and methodologies in addition to specific, well-defined, and realistic budgets. Barriers must be overcome by making the group members aware of how their specific interests and objectives will be served by a project, and it is necessary to be prepared to go through the various steps of interorganizing to develop stable and formal working relationships. Although for social agencies, rewards of interaction may appear to be intangible, e.g., improved service delivery or administrative benefits such as reduced case loads, rewards to civic, religious, and service organizations as well as to businesses should be more obvious. News articles, certificates of appreciation, and award ceremonies are some of the methods for providing the needed recognition.

The process of involvement takes time, as it does with business and agencies, and it requires the same sort of commitment and leadership. But the outcomes usually are more than worth the effort. Schools throughout the country are realizing tangible benefits measured in reductions in violence and vandalism as a result of such efforts.

Background Materials

Course 7 - The Community as a Problem-Solving Resource

Module 7.4 - Winning Agency/Business Support

Background I-D 7.4.2

"Backgrounds of Interagency Coordination:
A Working Paper"

A working paper by Marion A. Simon, Project Director, Interagency Planning Project, Statewide Youth Advocacy, Inc., June 1979.

(See attached)

BACKGROUNDS OF INTERAGENCY COORDINATION: A WORKING PAPER

Students come to schools with a wide variety of needs, many of which are not met by school systems. Consenses ends with that statement. Is it the school or the community which is responsible for dealing with the psycho-social needs of students? If the community has the obligation to provide such services, is that obligation discharged by the establishment of social service agencies? If the responsibility lies with the school, is that obligation dischaged by identification and referral of those children in need of services to appropriate agencies? Statewide Youth Advocacy Inc. asserts that such separation is ineffecient and unrealistic; school and community are inextricably interwoven and only by the cooperation of both sectors can the full range of students' and families' needs be met.

This paper argues that social services can be most economically and effectively provided to students in their schools by community based social service agencies. The paper discusses the barriers which prevent community agencies from working in the school, the political, methodological, and organizational differences. The paper also analyzes the prerequisite for successful implementation of interagency coordination and suggests procedures to assure its widespread acceptance.

The Need for Interagency Coordination

Educators and youth workers are aware of the correlation between failure in school and disruptive or delinquent behavior in and our of school. Vandalism, violence, drug and alcohol abuse and all other forms of disruptive and anti-social behavior are not unique to the schools. Rather, these are common problems. The schools and communities do not provide the appropriate level of assistance to those students most in need of support services -- the truants, the discipline problems, the academic underachievers and the potential dropouts.

Schools are overwhelmed by the problems of their communities. The schools' funding sources are not sufficient to provide both traditional educational and supportive social services. Schools are then placed in the untenable position of having to choose between the lesser of two evils: providing support services to disaffected students or traditional (curricular) services to the majority of students. If schools ignore the needs of the disaffected, the disruptive behavior of some students can seriously affect the climate and atmosphere an entire school and community. Not only are the disaffected students denied access to education through suspension and expulsion procedures, but also the entire student population becomes subject to harsh disciplinary codes. Inevitably, as the schools' climates change, there are the potential losses of activities that have traditionally made the school/community experience an important part of the maturation process for American youth. The loss of these activities can lead to a sense of isolation and alienation, as opposed to a sense of community and belongingness. If schools and community based agencies work together to address these problems, then the educational, emotional, and psychological needs of students can be met.

The goals of interagency coordination are to get services to children in the place they are most likely to be - school. If the agencies reach and deflect the disruptive and alienated youth, the teachers will be able to do that which they want to do most, teach. The students will have someone to whom they can turn when they need help; a friend to assist them and react to their unique problems; an adult whose job it is to think about individual students and all the problems that they bring to school from home and the outside world. The communit based worker can help create the caring environment documented as lacking in many schools by Failing Students - Failing Schools (SYA: 1978, pp. 26-28). This need for a sense of caring was cited by many dropouts as a vital factor in their decision to leave school. Also, agency workers are tuned in to the host of social services that exist in their communities to help students and families.

INTERAGENCY COORDINATION

Recently, there have been some successful efforts at interagency coordination, whereby schools and social service agencies work together to reach students typically overlooked by harried and overworked school district support-staff members - guidance counselors with three hundred or more students to counsel and school social workers and psychologists with three or four or five schools to cover.

Economic Benefits

The economics of interagency coordination should make that effort very attractive to both schools and social service agencies. It provides for the efficient delivery of services to youth by utilizing the vast array of available community resources in the most effective manner. Typically, community-based social service agencies are financed from a variety of sources: local and state departments of social services, foundation grants, United Way Agencies, state Divisions for Youth, mental health and crime prevention agencies, HEW, DOL, etc. School systems, on the other hand, receive the vast majority of their money from two sources: local property taxes and state-aid formulae. Some school programs have been financed by federal and foundation grants, but these programs are either categorically defined or of short duration (demonstration projects) and do little to change the basic processes by which students receive support services.

Economic benefits to the district which could result may develop out of the following situations: counselors employed by the social service agency do not become part of the school district teaching staff and, therefore, are not entitled to the benefits of tenure, the various retirement provisions of the school benefits package, health insurance, etc. Most significantly, the counselors do not impose a long-term financial obligation and cost on the district. Should the need for a particular service diminish, the agency representatives would no longer provide services, without any serious financial impact on the district, or for that matter, on the individual counslors since they would be moved to another school where the problems with which they are trained to deal may continue to exist.

There are many economic benefits which can accrue to both social service agencies and the school district involved in interagency coordination. These advantages can be demonstrated by a hypothetical example. Since agencies have a client-staff cost ratio that is generally less than the school districts' per-pupil cost ratio, a great saving can result to a school district interested in expanding its level of support services by means of community-based social service agencies. If there is drug-counseling money available from a state agency to be used in local communities, and a community-based social service agency applies for these funds to serve a school-age client population, the per-client cost will be less than if the school district took on a drug-counseling program. Since agency overhead is generally less than that of shcools, and the salaries for trained professional youth workers and social workers are lower than salaries for comparable school district personnel, more clients can be served.

Drug counseling is a prime example of the far-reaching benefits of interagency coordination. If drugs are a problem in a community, the drug workers can counsel clients outside of the school population and have an overall, positive impact on the school climate - since one can assume that the drug sellers and users come from both the school population and those young people no longer part of the school community. Drug counselors can provide services year-round rather than only during the time when school is in session, having a potentially greater impact in the community than counselors who are there for only the school year.

Furthermore, the drug counselors have a specific mission to accomplish. Their jobs are clearly delineated and focused. Their activities are such that they should not be distracted from performing their prescribed activities by the myriad scheduled changes, testing procedures, and other details which constantly confront guidance counselors. Nor, as is the case with school social workers, must they undertake extensive, diagnostic and social history write-ups and discussions with parents in order to facilitate referrals to outside social service agencies, which only then can provide the direct services. Most school social work is of an intake nature rather than direct treatment. This condition exists because of the inordinately high case loads of school social workers. The important point in this example is that the service gets to those who need it - with a minimum of interference.

In order to finance their activities, community-based social service agencies are placed in the position of competing against other agencies for funding. Agencies must annually demonstrate to their funding sources that they are meeting their obligations and continuing to serve efficiently the designated client population. This funding system should assure flexibility and responsiveness on the part of the community-based social service agency.

In sum, the economic-benefits arguments for interagency coordination are far reaching; a greater variety of services can be provided to youth within schools if outside agencies are utilized to their fullest. This additional service delivery need not cost the school system more money. The agencies with access to a wide variety of funding sources have the capability of providing services at a lower per-client cost than the schools, and, finally, if the direct delivery of services in the schools by outside agencies helps reduce dropout rates, additional state aid for these students can enhance the financial base for the district.

Furthermore, it should be pointed out that if interagency coordination reduces school or community vandalism, a saving has occurred. If more students have access to the benefits of education, graduate from high school, get better jobs, and do not become part of the welfare dependency cycle, additional economic savings and benefits can be attributed, albeit indirectly, to interagency coordination.

Barriers to Interagency Coordination

If the economic arguments are sufficient, one must ask why there has not yet been more cooperation between more communities and schools. It is important to explore why most of the examples of interagency coordination exist on an ad hoc basis, school-by-school, rather than on a district or statewide basis. There are few instances of boards of education in urban, suburban or rural districts taking the initiative and openly encouraging this coordinated activity by means of a specific policy statement. Therefore, one must analyze the methodological, political and organizational barriers to the widespread acceptance of interagency coordination.

Methodological Barriers

The methodological barriers are rooted in the differences between teaching and social service agency techniques. Although schools have a multiplicity of goals, their overriding objective is the transmission of information.

In addition, the schools serve a broad spectrum of clients: from those incapable of consuming their services to those who are insatiable in their demand for service and for whom they are inadequate. Within this vast range of demands for service, schools try to serve a middle ground, hoping that in so doing they will satisfy as many clients as possible.

Their problems are compounded by the inability of some children to adjust to the school structure or setting. Those children whose special needs place them outside of the mainstream of students may be only a small segment of the population in some schools; they may be a significant segment in others. Some school people ask: How far should school systems go in expending their resources to service the needs of disaffected students? This question implies that such expenditures divert resources from willing and eager clients. However, when the schools to not meet the needs of the disaffected, the schools fail both the children and the society at large.

On the other hand, community-based social service agencies are designed to deal with those people who do not fall within the mainstream. They are not concerned with the well-adjusted or "normal" person. They are prepared to deal with the abnormal, rather than the normal, client and, moreover, their procedures and methodology are highly focused and individualized. Further, social service agencies are reactive in nature.

Success, for social service agencies, is viewed over the very long term and can be interpreted in a variety of ways. School districts must show a particular level of achievement on reading scores, standardized tests, college acceptances and job achievement on the part of their students or incur the wrath of parents and state agencies. Success for a social service agency is determined quite differently. If an agency can show that, as a result of its intervention, a very maladjusted child has become somewhat less maladjusted or perhaps has moved into the bottom range of "normality," it may be possible to say success has been achieved.

Political Barriers

Given this divergence in methodology, it is not surprising that there are abundant political barriers to effective interagency coordination. The most significant of these rest in the diverse constituency from which the two systems draw their bases of operation. School districts have a clear mandate from a defined constituency on their role within the community. They exist as an extension of the state, since education is a state-mandated service. Boards of education and their policies are subject to voter approval. As agents of the state government, schools are subject to the scrutiny and requirements of state education department rules and regulations. They are provided the ongoing resources from local property taxes and state-aid formulae to address these tasks. If the policies of a board, or the management technique of an administration, are not in keeping with the desires and values of the residents of a particular community, they can be voted out of office (albeit a difficult and time-consuming process) and replaced with a board and administration more attuned to the needs and wishes of the voters.

Social service agencies, conversely, are not subject to this extreme scrutiny. It is true that they are responsible to boards of directors, trustees, funding sources and clients. However, other than voluntary professional accreditation, there are few criteria by which social service agencies are judged. There are no standardized tests by which they are evaluated and success if judged by highly-subjective, qualitative and incremental achievements over a very long period of time.

In addition, social service agency success may be measured by numbers of clients served (quantitative rather than qualitative measures). Funding success may be more the result of the political accuity of the executive director than the efficacy and long-lasting consequences of the specific counseling techniques used by the social workers and counselors.

Organizational Barriers

These diverse methodological and political bases lead directly to problems surrounding the organizational structure of the two types of systems. In the past, school district administrators and building-level administrators have been loath to allow "outsiders" into their buildings for fear of losing "control" over the activities for which they believe they are ultimately responsible.

The question which immediately arises is, of course, to whom (within the school) would the community-agency staff member report if an outside autonomous agency began functioning in the school? The principal would no longer have control over all activities going on in the school. The recognition of the school's loss of total control over activities within it has been a serious barrier to the delivery of services by outside agencies. If these concerns are not specifically addressed by the schools and the agencies, coordinated action is doubtful.

Social service agencies and community people have frequently criticized school policies and practices without understanding the political and financial pressures to which schools are subject. These criticisms force schools to adopt defensive postures and withdraw from interacting positively and openly with their communities.

This withdrawal has created a wary attitude by staff members of both systems toward each other. School people tend to think of agency staff members as "unprofessionals." Agency people think of school teachers and administrators in stereotypical, bureaucratic, terms. These misconceptions are generated, to a large extent, by the lack of congruence among the various licensing procedures to which agency people and school personnel must adhere.

This lack of compatability in certification is not a minor point. Teachers and administrators are subject to specific certification procedures developed by state education departments, based on a prescribed amount of coursework and testing. Agency staff are not subject to the same degree of scrutiny (although they usually have bachelors or masters degrees).

Agency staffs are more subject to "burn out" and have a higher turnover rate. This turnover makes school people, who tend to be concerned with job security and tenure, uncomfortable. However, one must understand that social workers, et al, are dealing with highly-disturbed children and may need to change jobs more frequently to "survive." School teachers, given the vast array of "types" of children with whom they work, as well as a generous vacation time and relatively shorter working hours, may retain their sense of proportion for a longer period of time. Again, these may be merely stylistic issues, but they are fraught with the potential for great mistrust, as systems attempt to mesh. After all, how can "they" be professionals, a school person may ask, if "they" have only remained in their jobs for six-month intervals? Alternatively, how can "they" really be concerned about children, when all "they" want is the good vacation and job security?

Along with these issues of turnover and licensing, there is also the question of life style. Looking at the systems from the outside, these issues may appear trivial, but to individuals working within the framework of their organizational structure, these are not small matters. Budget cuts and declining enrollment combined with unionization have created a strong , stable , middle class teaching profession. This differs from the younger, more transient, frequently more "counter-culture " youth worker and counselor profession.

Successful School Based Program Models

It is important to review and assess the variety of approaches and models by which interagency coordination has occurred. All of these approaches require re-thinking, reorientation, and a willingness to take risks, on the part of both the social service agencies and the school districts. Social service agencies must become outreach agencies, actively seeking their clients, instead of simply reacting and receiving clients as a result of referrals from other agencies or self-referral by clients.

The schools, in turn, may no longer continue to act as if they were the only youth-serving agency in the community with total responsibility for their clients. It must be made clear that when schools ask for community participation in the resolution of problems, this is not an admission of failure. Rather, it is an acknowledgement that school problems are rooted in the community and require the utilization of community resources. Schools should not expect - or be expected - to have the resources necessary to meet all the needs of all the children.

There are a variety of successul program models which have been effective in the integration and delivery of services. Among these successful models are:

1. peer counseling
2. art, dance, music, and drama therapy
3. group counseling
4. traditional individual client counseling
5. family therapy
6. remediation tutorial activities

The success of these approaches is based primarily on the flexibility and the cooperativeness of teh staffs from the integrating systems. These two factors, along with strong training, evaluation and education components and a well-developed support system from the agency to its workers in the schools, help to assure the successful delivery of services.

Furthermore, those agencies which operate successful programs in schools are always aware of their position as "guests" in the host schools. The agencies are cognizant of the multiple agenda and political nuances within the schools and of the unique position of the school in the lives of its clients.

The atmosphere and environment of the schools in which community-based agencies are functioning engender positive (or at least not negative) feelings among the youth workers and the school staff. Community based workers are viewed as complementary - never supplementary - to the teaching staff, helping to assure that all students in the school setting have access to the benefits of the educational system.

Future Directions

A great deal of work remains to be done to assure the continuation and expansion of the movement to open schools to social service agencies. The following services are generally lacking to schools and agencies and need to be developed:

First, the schools and agencies need to be made more aware of the philosophy, methodology, goals and benefits of interagency coordination.

Second, successful models of interagency coordination should be described to gatherings of policymakers, administrators, and agency staff.

Third, the economic cost-benefit arguments should be developed for funding sources.

Fourth, technical assistance should be provided to schools and agencies interested in expansion of their support services.

Fifth, mechanisms must be created by which the staffs of community-based social service agencies and school districts can engage in ongoing dialogues.

Sixth, there must be evaluation of both the short-term and long-term effects on participants (students, teachers, agencies, and communities) of interagency coordination models and efforts.

INTERAGENCY COORDINATION

Coordination among agencies is not a panacea for society's ills. It is, however, one way in which efficient utilization of community resources can bring more and better services to troubled youth. It is a worthwhile goal that has the potential for accomplishing great social good.

Course 7 - The Community as a Problem-Solving Resource

Module 7.4 - Winning Agency/Business Support

Background I-D 7.4.3

Background Materials

School-Community Cooperation:
Oakland's Adopt-A-School Program

(See Attached)

SCHOOL-COMMUNITY COOPERATION: OAKLAND'S ADOPT-A-SCHOOL PROGRAM

SUMMARY

Adopt-A-School programs are models of school-community involvement and cooperation in which businesses, organizations, and industries adopt schools and contribute funds, personnel, or expertise to those schools for programs, projects, and services. Through such support and input, schools gain programs and services they would not otherwise have and are enabled to continue to grow, change, and provide students with the kinds of curriculum and growth-producing learning experiences they need. Faculty and students experience fresh viewpoints, ideas, and concepts and gain links with the world outside the classroom. Adopt-A-School programs are operating successfully in several communities across the country, including Oakland, California, Boston, Massachusetts, and Dallas, Texas. This bulletin highlights the Adopt-A-School program in the Oakland Unified School District and suggests programs, projects, and services that businesses, organizations, and industries might offer to schools.

THE PROBLEM

Today's schools often need a greater range of services and programs for their students than they are able to provide. Many schools are faced with budget cuts and fewer faculty and find it difficult to maintain and create a learning environment that is exciting, challenging, and responsive to their students. Without such an environment, and community input and support, schools may become isolated from their communities and unable to provide needed learning and growing experiences for their students.

THE SOLUTION

In the Adopt-A-School program in Oakland's Unified School District, businesses, industries, and organizations work in and with schools and provide funding, projects, personnel, and expertise to establish programs or offer services that the schools deem necessary. Involvement ranges from corporate contributions to total sponsorship and initiation of programs. Businesses support schools financially or offer skills and expertise that are unique--and needed in the schools.

Oakland began its Adopt-A-School program during the 1975-76 school year. The program, promoted by the school district superintendent and advertised by the local chamber of commerce and the school district director of community relations, continues to grow each year as more businesses and organizations become involved.

The procedure used in the Oakland School District is as follows. After a business or organization has expressed interest in adopting a school, and a school has been chosen, a representative from the superintendent's office, the principal of the designated school, and top managers of the business or organization meet to discuss ways to assist the school. Representatives from the business or organization visit the school and select a project; a proposal is submitted to the school with a tentative budget and a memorandum of understanding; and the project gets underway. A representative from the school works continuously with the business or organization during the project's development, initiation, and practice to ensure that the program is working well.

Criteria set up by the Oakland School District for an adoption are that--

- An existing program is not duplicated
- The program is based on the needs of the school
- The program fits into the learning goals and planning objectives set by the district
- The company agrees informally to commit itself to the program for at least 3 years for the sake of continuity in the schools.

Over 20 private companies are now involved in the Oakland Adopt-A-School program, including Crown Zellerback, IBM, Pacific Telephone and Telegraph, Kaiser Aluminum and Chemical Corporation, Clorox, and Bank of America.

The Clorox Company adopted Castlemont High School in 1977. Castlemont, the largest high school in the district, is located in a low-income neighborhood with pervasive social problems--high unemployment, many families on welfare, and students with poor reading skills. After discussions with school representatives, Clorox developed a two-phase program concentrating on reading skills development. In the first phase a remedial reading program was developed for 100 high school students whose reading levels were at the second or third grade. Clorox purchased the materials and equipment needed for the classes and also funded two 3-hour-per-day assistants for the program. (This was in addition to the school's two regular reading specialists.) During the first semester of this intensive program, students in the three remedial reading programs gained an average of 11 months in their reading capabilities.

The second phase of the program was a library improvement project. The Clorox Company held a book drive among employees and contributed all books to the library. All complimentary magazines sent to the company were forwarded to the school, and Clorox also provided funds for new books and periodicals.

To encourage regular attendance and reward reading improvement, Clorox offered gift certificates as incentives. A $10 gift certificate from a local record shop was awarded to the student with the greatest reading score improvement over the previous month. Other gift certificates were awarded for perfect attendance.

In 1977 Clorox contributed $13,500 to the program, and in 1978 the company raised its contribution to $25,000.

Kaiser Aluminum and Chemical Corporation formed a partnership with Oakland High School. Kaiser surveyed the needs and facilities at the school and decided to concentrate on an individualized reading and math skill improvement center. An unused surplus classroom was transformed into a dazzling electronic display of

Kaiser-supplied teaching resources and named "The Force" by the students. Equipment provided included tape recorders, film viewers, filing cabinets filled with an array of diagnostic tests, and individualized remedial materials. Students were programmed into The Force every period of the day to work on individualized assignments, supervised by the center's reading teacher, its math teacher, and several full-time assistants. Some of the students are now working as "peer" tutors to other students. These tutors, and other students who make outstanding progress in the center, are further rewarded with part-time jobs at Kaiser after school or during vacations. Kaiser has also donated tickets to cultural and sports events and sent its own employees to lecture and teach.

Kaiser Permanente Medical Care Program, a health care program servicing over 7 million members in California, also works with Oakland's Adopt-A-School program. In a "4-4 program" students work at the facility 4 hours a day performing menial jobs for minimum wages, and attend school 4 hours a day. Jobs last one semester or a year. A summer youth program, which begins with extensive orientation meetings and ends with evaluations of the program both by students and supervisors, employs students full time for 3 months in all kinds of work in the facilities. Representatives of Kaiser's Education and Training Department visit Oakland high schools to orient students to careers in the health field--both professional and administrative--and discuss the various professions and supply students with union contracts delineating salaries, benefits, and working conditions.

Saint Luke's Society, an organization of doctors and ministers in the Oakland area, has also worked with students. Students "shadow" doctors in the hospitals and their offices and ministers in their calls and visits in order to learn more about these occupations.

RESULTS

Businesses, organizations, and industries that participate in Adopt-A-School programs offer projects, services, and funding that schools would not have otherwise. Program results are both tangible and intangible. Where reading skills classes have been promoted, student reading ability has often risen dramatically. Students who were apathetic, passive, and uninterested in books now use the libraries, attend classes, and are generally enthusiastic. Because students are not as fearful or angry, there is less vandalism. Students and teachers are happier, morale is higher, and the environment is safer and more conducive to learning.

REPLICATION ISSUES

In planning for Adopt-A-School programs, which may be implemented in any school and its community, it should be noted that there are four major kinds of contributions that businesses, industries, and organizations can make:

- Funding--Businesses and organizations can contribute funds to a school for all kinds of projects the school could not afford otherwise (for example, a new reading lab, or computer equipment).

- Projects--Community leaders can work with school personnel to develop new projects for the students (for example, classroom or club projects).

- Personnel--Businesses or organizations can provide personnel to lecture, assist in program development, or work as consultants (for example, a businessman can teach an economics course or a business course).

- Expertise--Businesses or industries can lend their expertise to schools in developing new programs and new projects. (An engineer can advise faculty on suitable courses for students.)

Other specific projects for community involvement suggested by the Oakland Unified School District include--

- Student tutoring--Businesses or organizations can grant employees release time to tutor students. (This can be in remedial math or reading, or involve new subjects--economics, psychology.)

- Resource persons--Businesses or organizations can provide speakers for classes, assemblies, or special programs.

- Cultural events--Businesses can sponsor field trips or tours to cultural events.

- Clubs--Businesses or organizations can sponsor clubs--book, art, foreign language, cooking, research--which are related to the curriculum.

- Apprentice programs--Businesses or organizations can place students as interns or apprentices. (Students have worked in offices, labs, hospitals.)

- Career development--Businesses or organizations can participate in career development curriculum or work to develop career days.

- Maintenance--Businesses or organizations can support students to maintain or renovate school property.

- Incentives and awards--Businesses can provide prizes, certificates, plaques, and other awards for schools and/or students for outstanding accomplishments.

- Staff development--Businesses or organizations can provide inservice education to staff in areas of expertise--management training, economics, computer instruction, business education.

- Special projects--Businesses or organizations can support innovative activities they deem important--a reading or math lab.

Because businesses and individuals who devote their resources to school programs need and deserve to have the results of their efforts measured and publicized, a suitable method of measuring results and making them available should be part of every community involvement plan.

REQUIRED RESOURCES

Each school must survey its needs and identify community resources to fill them. The resources which the school can donate to this program include the planning and coordinating time of the staff person who organizes the Adopt-A-School program as well as the use of space and equipment.

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Course 7 - The Community as a Problem-Solving Resource

Module 7.4 - Winning Agency/Business Support

Background I-D 7.4.4

Background Materials

Resistance to Change

Resistance to change is normal and natural. Social institutions, schools, businesses, governments, and personal lives are stabilized by not changing, by maintaining a constantness--the status quo. The following material focuses on some of the motivations and reasons why people and organizations are resistant to change, and find it difficult.

1. Change is resisted by force of habit--Humans are creatures of habit. The time we get up, the way we dress, the route we take to work, where we carry our money, the place we sit in meetings or at home--all are habitual behavior. Changing any of these habits makes us uncomfortable. Routine seems safe, known. If by demand or circumstances, we are forced from habit, anxiety results.

2. Change disturbs what is regarded as normal--What is customary, what is old (the "good old days", "the old-fashioned way") are assumed to be "normal" while change is deemed "abnormal." The status quo is protected because it represents a known norm with which we can deal. Organizational norms are accepted as "the way we do things here" and are interpreted as tried and true simply because of their existence.

3. Change may increase or decrease workloads--People are often stressed by the idea of taking on a greater responsibility--or losing a responsibility they already have.

4. Change may be perceived as an admission of failure or the judgment of inadequacy--A new procedure which could save money can be resisted because making the change would appear to be an admission that money is now being wasted. Training is resisted because acceptance seems to be an acknowledgement of ignorance. The advocacy of change takes on the weight of an indictment that "something is wrong."

5. The reasons for change may be unclear, or misunderstood--Motivation for change may be suspected. An assumption can be made that the advocate of change would benefit inordinately from the change. Some changes which might be given superficial or "professional" acceptance are resisted because they conflict with personal attitudes or goals. The police officer may resent some service duties as being "social work." A change may interfere with an opponent's desire to press for some other change.

6. Change can be resisted for its ripple effect--Change at one level may require changes at other levels--increased budget, more personnel, training, approval of authority figures, new policies or procedures, amended legislation.

7. Changes can represent a challenge to authority--Change sometimes is perceived as an invasion of "turf," which could mean loss of control by an authority figure. Change initiated from outside may infer to a resister that "somebody is trying to tell me how to do my job." The "good guy" privileges of a leader may be diminished by change, robbing him or her of the opportunity to dispense rewards. For example, the school may be leary of hiring outside counselors to work with students.

8. People may feel powerless to make changes--Traditional and bureaucratic organizations are perceived as immovable and hope for change is useless. A sense of impotence comes when accountability for change rests upon vague, faceless forces--"They ought to do something about it." The anonymous community, public, or "society," is held responsible for lack of change, such as in the view that "people get the kind of government they deserve." These statements represent a sense of powerlessness.

Course 7 - The Community as a Problem-Solving Resource

Module 7.5 - School/Community Links: The Juvenile Justice System

Total Time 1 hour

Module Summary

This module addresses the possibilities of interagency coordination between the schools and the juvenile justice system or one of its components. Examples of interagency programs will be presented with an opportunity for participants to identify regional issues and to share knowledge of local programs.

Activity/Content Summary	Time
1. Introduction Trainer addresses the possibilities for interagency coordination between the school and the juvenile justice system.	5 min.
2. Overview of the Juvenile Justice System Participants identify relevant components of the juvenile justice system and review reasons and motivations for interagency coordination between the school and the juvenile justice system. A. Components of the Juvenile Justice System B. The Process of the Juvenile Justice System C. Reasons for Interagency Cooperation D. The Motivation for Interagency Programs	15 min.
3. Programs and Strategies for Developing Interagency Coordination Illustrations of programs designed to facilitate interagency cooperation are discussed. A. Interagency Coordination: Police-School B. Interagency Coordination: School-Court/Corrections C. Interagency Coordination: School-Multiagency	15 min.

Activity/Content Summary	Time
4. Identifying Local Problems and Interagency Programs Participants identify and share local problems in which the school and the juvenile justice areas might cooperate. Possible strategies are discussed.	20 min.
5. Wrap-Up Trainer discusses the advantages of interagency coordination efforts.	5 min.

Course 7 - The Community as a Problem-Solving Resource

Module 7.5 - School/Community Links: The Juvenile Justice System

Objectives

Participants will be able to--

1. Identify the components of the juvenile justice system with which they need to interact
2. Provide examples of programs which utilize interagency coordination efforts between the juvenile justice agencies and the schools
3. Explain the advantages of interagency programs.

Description of Materials

Transparencies

7.5.1 - 7.5.6	Transparencies emphasize aspects of the juvenile justice system.

Participant Worksheets

7.5.1	Problem/Issue Identification
7.5.2	Strategy Identification
7.5.3	Identification of Organizational Consequences

Background Materials

7.5.1	Juvenile Justice Process
7.5.2	Juvenile Justice Glossary
7.5.3	Summary of Course Lecture
R.7.5.3	Elements of a School-Police Liaison Officer Program. NSRN Technical Assistance Bulletin.

Resource Materials

R.7.5.1	Building School-Court Cooperation: The Berrien County Model. NSRN Technical Assistance Bulletin.
R.7.5.2	The Officer Friendly Program. NSRN Technical Assistance Bulletin.
R.7.5.3	Elements of a School-Police Liaison Officer Program. NSRN Technical Assistance Bulletin.

Bibliography

Juvenile Justice System Bibliography

Course 7 - The Community as a Problem-Solving Resource

Module 7.5 - School/Community Links: The Juvenile Justice System

Worksheet I-D 7.5.1

Participant Worksheet

Problem/Issue Identification

As an individual, review what you think are the schools' current or near-future problems. For example, a local school is experiencing many acts of vandalism by students who are truant. Below, list the problem(s) that appear to meet the following criteria:

- This problem falls within the scope of a juvenile justice agency's goals and objectives.
- This is a priority problem for this agency and the school.
- It appears possible to solve or reduce this problem.

Possible problem areas:

For purposes of group discussion, begin considering what strategies might be appropriate for approaching this problem. These strategies should include the element of coordination between the school and the juvenile justice system or any of its components.

Problem	Strategy

Course 7 - The Community as a Problem-Solving Resource

Module 7.5 - School/Community Links: The Juvenile Justice System

Worksheet I-D 7.5.2 (Optional)

Participant Worksheet

Strategy Identification

Step 1: As a group, choose one of the problems previously identified by one of the participants.

Problem: ______________________________

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Step 2: As a group, brainstorm possible strategies for dealing with this problem which include coordination between the school and the juvenile justice system or any of its components. (Participants are encouraged to share innovative programs.)

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Course 7 - The Community as a Problem-Solving Resource

Module 7.5 - School/Community Links: The Juvenile Justice System

Worksheet I-D 7.5.3 (Optional)

Participant Worksheet

Identification of Organizational Consequences

Step 1: As a group, determine the possible consequences of two of the strategies suggested. What effect will this strategy program have on your organization?

You may consider the following:

- Organizational policies which need to be decided, prepared, and disseminated.
- Procedures which need to be developed (i.e., regarding communication of coordination linkages between the agencies).
- Roles of personnel which may be affected or need to be explained.
- Supervision and management requirements and responsibilities.
- Structural changes of the organization which need to be accommodated.
- Activities which need to be monitored or decided and disseminated.
- Definition of agency responsibility or authority.

Possible Strategies	Consequences	+ or -

Step 2: When consequences have been listed, go back to that list and mark each consequence with a + (positive force) or - (negative force) sign, depending on how the consequence is perceived.

Step 3: Examine the relative strengths of the opposing forces for each strategy, then select a strategy.

Strategy: ____________________

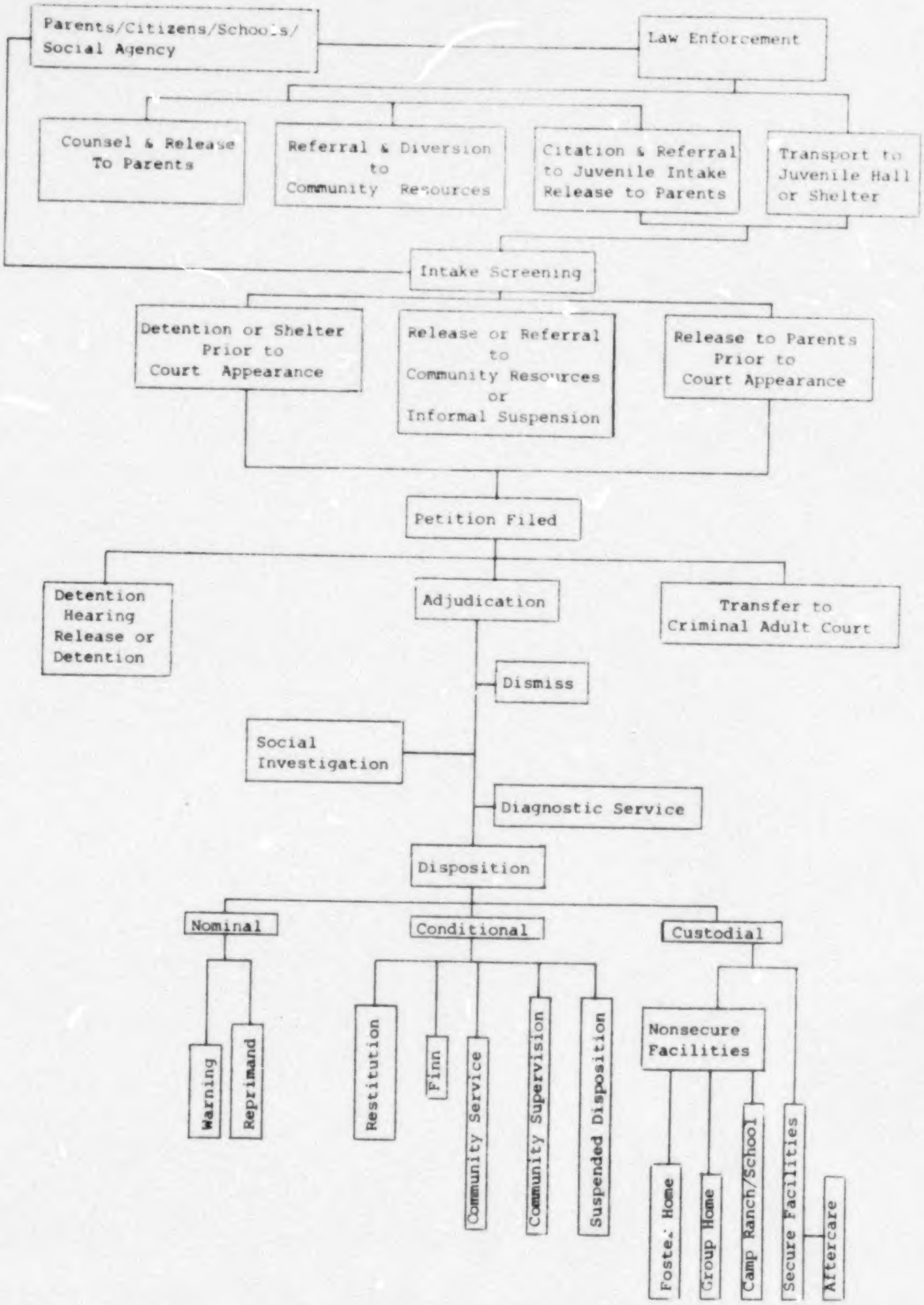
Background Materials

Course 7 - The Community as a Problem Solving Resource

Module 7.5 - Targets for School/Community Links: The Juvenile Justice System

Background I-D 7.5.1

JUVENILE JUSTICE PROCESS*


Parents/Citizens/Schools/ Social Agency
Law Enforcement
Counsel & Release To Parents
Referral & Diversion to Community Resources
Citation & Referral to Juvenile Intake Release to Parents
Transport to Juvenile Hall or Shelter
Intake Screening
Detention or Shelter Prior to Court Appearance
Release or Referral to Community Resources or Informal Suspension
Release to Parents Prior to Court Appearance
Petition Filed
Detention Hearing Release or Detention
Adjudication
Transfer to Criminal Adult Court
Dismiss
Social Investigation
Diagnostic Service
Disposition
Nominal
Conditional
Custodial
Warning
Reprimand
Restitution
Finn
Community Service
Community Supervision
Suspended Disposition
Nonsecure Facilities
Foster Home
Group Home
Camp Ranch/School
Secure Facilities
Aftercare

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*Adapted from National Advisory Committee on Criminal Justice Status and Goals. Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention: Report on the Task Force on Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention, December, 1976.

Course 7 - The Community as a Problem-Solving Resource

Module 7.5 - School/Community Links: The Juvenile Justice System

Background I-D 7.5.2

Background Materials

Juvenile Justice Glossary

Adjudication--The process of determining guilt or innocence by judicial procedure.

Advisement--The process of informing an individual of his or her rights.

Aftercare--The term equivalent to "parole," which is applied to juveniles for the followup provided them after release from an institution.

Alternative programs--Programs for offenders in the community in lieu of confinement.

Arrest--The taking of a person into custody to answer an alleged violation of juvenile law (using the term "take into custody" is preferred over "arrest").

Booking--To formally record charges against a person at the receiving desk of a juvenile detention facility.

Cite--To summon, to command the presence of a person, to notify a person of legal proceedings against him or her, and require his or her presence thereto (may be used as alternative to taking a juvenile into custody).

Commit--The process of sending a juvenile to a reformatory, or the like, by authority of a court.

Community supervision--A term equivalent to "probation." A legal status granted by a court whereby, in lieu of confinement, a juvenile convicted of a delinquent act is permitted to remain in the community subject to conditions specified by the court (exception: see informal supervision).

Custody--To have in one's possession under legal authority.

Decriminalize--To remove from criminal and juvenile codes and local ordinances certain offenses which are not injurious to others nor deprive others of property.

Defense attorney--The attorney representing the juvenile in a juvenile justice action (reference adapted to juvenile system).

Delinquency--Law violations as defined specifically for children under an established age. Includes offenses that are crimes if committed by adults as well as non-criminal behavior peculiar to children, such as truancy or running away.

Detention--Detention for the juvenile court is the temporary care of children in physically restricted facilities pending court hearing or transfer to another jurisdiction or agency.

Discharge--Release from probation, parole, or confinement.

Disposition--Formal action of the court or parole board.

Dispositional hearing--The sentencing phase of the judicial process (using the term "subjected to disposition" is preferred over "sentenced" for juveniles).

District attorney--A county official responsible for the prosecution of individuals accused of violations of juvenile law committed in that jurisdiction (reference adapted to juvenile system).

Diversion--Programs which are specifically designed to keep individuals from entering the juvenile justice system.

Foster care--Placement of a child in a family home where the child participates as a member of the family. Foster parents assume the role of parents. Placement may be made under direction of the court or social agency, if care is temporary.

Group home--A home, usually operated by an agency, in which a number of individuals live and are cared for.

Incorrigible--Unmanageable, beyond the control of parents, chargeable under juvenile codes.

Intake--The screening process used in juvenile courts and/or juvenile probation departments during which it is determined whether a case should be accepted, rejected, or referred to another agency. If the case is accepted, intake determines whether the child should be referred for informal supervision and whether detention is necessary.

Jurisdiction--(1) The limits of authority of a criminal justice agency by geographic criteria, by age of clientele, or by type of offense; (2) the power conferred upon a court to hear certain cases.

Juvenile--A legal term designating a person under the legal age of adulthood (specific age varies by state).

Juvenile code--That body of law which establishes and governs the juvenile court.

Juvenile court--A special court which hears cases of children charged with having committed either a violation of adult law or engaging in an activity injurious to their own welfare, or who are said to be neglected.

Juvenile hall--Temporary care of children in restrictive facilities pending court or transfer of jurisdiction.

Juvenile institution--A residential facility, often called a training school, for the treatment of children who have been found to be delinquent by a court and who have been committed to the institution.

Juvenile officer--A police officer whose primary function is to work with offending youth.

Law enforcement--A term which collectively describes one aspect of police services.

Legal custody--Those rights and responsibilities associated with the day-to-day care of the child. The person who has legal custody of a child may be the parent, the juvenile court, a foster home, a relative of the family, or someone designated by the court, such as a State agency.

Minor--A person or infant who is under the age of legal competence; age varies by State.

Neglected child--Any child (a) who is abandoned by his or her parents, guardian, or custodian; (b) who lacks proper parental care because of the faults or habits of his or her parents, guardian, or custodian; (c) whose parents, guardian, or custodian neglect or refuse to provide him or her with proper or necessary subsistence, education, medical or surgical care, or other care necessary for his or her health, morals, or well-being; or (d) whose parents, guardian, or custodian neglect or refuse to provide the special care made necessary by his or her mental condition.

Parole--Method of releasing an offender from an institution prior to completion of his or her maximum sentence, subject to conditions specified by the paroling authority. The offender is still in legal custody.

Petition--The legal document used by juvenile courts to specify the details of an alleged delinquent act or that the child is dependent or neglected.

Presentence report--A background investigation conducted by a probation department for utilization following an individual's conviction of a delinquent act.

Probation--A legal status granted by a court whereby, in lieu of confinement, a juvenile convicted of a delinquent act is permitted to remain in the community subject to conditions specified by the court (see supervision, informal).

Protective supervision--A status under which a child who has been found by a court to be neglected is permitted to remain in his or her own home for a period during which the court or welfare offers his or her parents casework help.

Public defender--A publicly appointed attorney responsible for the defense of indigent persons or families accused of delinquent acts.

Reception center--A correctional facility which is designated to receive new inmates in order to evaluate them and determine their place of confinement.

Recidivism--The term used to express the percentage of return of delinquent activity of persons previously convicted of delinquent acts.

Referee--In some States the person to whom a juvenile court judge may refer cases for hearing. The powers of the referee are usually prescribed by law and in most States the referee is not empowered to make a final order. A referee's principal function is to act as a hearing officer, to reduce testimony to findings of fact, and to make a recommendation as to the disposition. The recommendation as to disposition may be modified, approved, or disapproved by the judge, but when approved or modified it becomes the order of the court.

Reformatory--A correctional facility for younger offenders which specializes in intensive vocational and educational rehabilitation.

Residential treatment centers--Noncustodial institutions located in the community which provide programs for certain types of offenders.

Restitution--Reimbursement to the victim of a crime for loss or for expenses incurred because of the crime; often imposed upon the offender as a condition of probation.

Runaway--A juvenile offense; also a juvenile offender who has run away from home or place of legal jurisdiction.

Shelter care--Temporary care of children in physically unrestricting facilities, usually pending return to their own homes or placement for longer-term care.

Social investigation--A background investigation conducted by a probation department for utilization following an individual's conviction of a delinquent act (see presentence report).

Supervision--Any supervision of an offender in that community by a probation officer or parole agent.

Supervision, informal--The supervision of juveniles for whom petitions have not been filed and who will not be handled judicially in court depending upon their adjustment (informal probation is based upon informal written agreement of parents, juvenile, and probation agency).

Unruly child--One who does not subject himself or herself to the reasonable control of his or her parents, teacher, guardian, or custodian, by reason of being wayward or habitually disobedient.

Ward of the court--A child over whom the court assumes continuing jurisdiction.

Adapted from "Skills for Impact: Voluntary Action in Criminal Justice," by Benjamin Broox McIntyre, Institute of Government, University of Georgia and Association of Junior Leagues.

Course 7 - Community

Module 7.5 Targets for School-Community Links: The Juvenile Justice System

Background I-D 7.5.3 Article Based on Course Lecture

Background Materials

SUMMARY OF COURSE LECTURE

A survey of over 4,000 schools conducted by the National Institute of Education indicated that

> "when it comes to the courts, the principals vote is 'no confidence'. Only 16% said that the courts provided very much support."[1]

This session specifically addresses the possibilities of interagency coordination between the school and the juvenile justice system. The system whose major component the court has received a vote of "no confidence". With this perspective, the educator hesitates to get involved with the juvenile justice system and, therefore, is rarely familiar with that system.

Thus, prior to a discussion of interagency coordination, let us describe the juvenile justice system and examine its relationship with the school.

The juvenile justice system typically is described in terms of its component parts: (See Transparency 7.6.1)

- LAW ENFORCEMENT
- COURTS
- CORRECTIONS

"Law enforcement" refers to all police services. The "court" includes the judiciary, public defender, and prosecuting attorney. "Corrections" encompasses probation, parole, and juvenile institutions.

The juvenile justice system is typically a complex network of unorganized and unsystematic operations of many public agencies.

Entrance of a juvenile into the juvenile justice system can result from the actions of any of the following sources:

- peace officer
- parents
- citizens
- schools
- social agencies

ases originated by law enforcement may begin as an encounter on the street between a police officer and a juvenile suspected of either committing an act which, if committed by an adult, would constitute a crime, or being beyond the lawful control of his/her parents, guardian, or othe lawful authority. Once beoming aware of either of these situations, the officer will either attempt to handle the matter informally or will begin to process the case through the system. (Participants may wish to refer to the more detailed Juvenile Justice Process (p.) or Juvenile Justice Glossary. (p.)

When the police officer believes further processing is appropriate, the officer will refer the case to the probation intake unit of the juvenile court. This referral may be by means of a formal citation or transporting the juvenile to juvenile hall or shelter facility.

Juvenile cases which progress through the entire juvenile justice system undergo the following sequence of processing stages: (See Transparency 7.5.2)

- Intake
- Petition
- Adjudication
- Social Investigation
- Disposition
- Community Supervision
- Commitment
- Aftercare Supervision

However, cases may be handled informally and dismissed and, therefore, may not necessarily go through all stages.

The police base their decisions to make formal referrals on the law. They have discretion within their guidelines but the guidelines themselves are fairly clear. Other referral sources have less well defined criteria for referral.

What constitutes beyond control of one parent may be an inconvenience to another parent. What constitutes an intolerable disruption in one school may only be a distraction in another school.

The juvenile justice system must accept all referrals. The discretion is exercised in the system at the intake level. At that level it may be decided that the referral was unnecessary and resulted from an abuse of discretion by the referral source and the case may be dismissed or othewise diverted from the system.

The referral source observes this action by the system and probably will consider the system to be unresponsive to the interests of the referral source. This situation results in lack of confidence in the juvenile justice system and the system's opinion that referral sources, at least in some cases, lack credibility.

The main source of this problem is a lack of a clear understanding of the criteria for the exercise of discretion by referral sources and of the present policies of the members of the juvenile justice system.

Consequently, like many organizations, the relationship between the school and the juvenile justice system is characterized "more by hostility, competitiveness, and isolation than by common purpose a decisiveness and lack of communication which provide avenues of alienation for young people."[2]

This presents several substantive questions in our discussion of interagency coordination between the school and the juvenile justice system:

- **Why should systems, which may be competing for the same resources, develop formal and informal interagency communication?**
- How do systems with different formal goals (rehabilitation-custody versus education) operate integratively?

In answer to the first question, (See Transparency 7.5.3) there is the problem of acts of violence and vandalism which are occuring within our schools with more frequency and intensity than in the past. This clearly interferes with the educational process. Schools are attempting to develop strategies and programs which can contribute to reducing problems of violence and vandalism, as well as help prevent the development of patterns of delinquency. Consequently, the problems of delinquency prevention and control are no longer the major concern of the juvenile justice system-alone.

There are at least three basic needs that provide motivation for interagency programs. (See Transparency 7.5.4)

- CONSERVE RESOURCES
- CHANGING SOCIAL NEEDS
- UNMET URGENT SOCIAL NEEDS

They are the need to conserve limited economic resources; changing social needs of the community, and unmet urgent social needs of a particular segment of the population. During a period of escalating rates of juvenile crime and delinquency, an increasing trend of violence and vandalism in the school, and scarce resources available to meet these needs; if interagency coordination can reduce school and community vandalism and violence, both the school and the juvenile justice system have benefitted.

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[2] Scherer, Jacqueline. "School-Community Linkages: Avenue of Alienation or Socialization" in School Crime and Disruption: Prevention Models, page 82.

At this time, let us discuss a number of strategies and programs which have proven successful in reducing violence and vandalism in the school. Some of these programs require the expenditure of funds while others can be implemented without much expense or without spending any money at all.

There are no panaceas, the several strategies discussed here offer a variety of suggestions to the educational community on methods which can be helpful. Clearly, there is no one program that can meet the variety of problems and issues presented to the educational system today.

Due to the nature of the systems involved, the school and the juvenile justice system, these programs, for the most part, emphasize prevention rather than control strategies.

The police, the most visible component of the juvenile justice system and usually the initial contact with the juvenile justice system, appears to be most actively involved in interagency programs with the school. The degree of interaction varies widely from a minimum level of interchange as cases arise to a close working relationship.
(See Transparency 7.5.5)

- For instance, "in an effort to avoid what might politely be termed 'conflicts of judgment' between school administrators and line officers, some police departments have cooperated with school districts and developed Memoranda of Understanding."[3]

There are an increasing number of police liaison programs in which a police officer, uniformed or non-uniformed officers, are assigned to the schools.

Some of these officers are basically police "on the beat" whose main purpose is security and control.

- In Chicago, police in the schools is not a new idea. Some of the tougher schools have been patrolled by officers from the juvenile division for the past twenty-five years. In the past five years, though, because of requests from school administrators, the number of police in the schools has doubled.[4]

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3. Rubel, Robert J. Phd. D. "The Role of Police in Schools" (unpublished paper developed under Visiting Fellowship Grant, NIJJDP/LEAA,1976).

4. Krajick, Kevin. "On Patrol in the 'Blackboard Jungle': Are Police in high schools protectors or intruders?" Police Magazine, May, 1978, pp. 48-54.

- Approximately five to six years ago, Memphis, Tennessee was experiencing increasing incidents of violence in the school; and Winston-Salem, Forsyth County, North Carolina was having problems trying to implement desegration laws. Both sites initiated police-liaison programs by assigning non-uniformed officers to the secondary schools. One program is funded entirely by law enforcement funds while the other program shares the cost on a 50-50 basis.

- Fresno, California has recently initiated a police liaison program, in 1977, by placing seven officers in the secondary schools. This was a coordinated effort, sponsored by the school and the police.

In 1979, the police and the school have begun "OPERATION STAY IN SCHOOL", modeled after a program in Los Angeles, California. Officers pick up truant students and take them to a center where school personnel call parents to return students to school.

The majority of police-school liaison programs have been developed for prevention purposes other than control or security. The police officer, usually non-uniformed, is assigned to a school because of the officer's interest and ability to communicate with youth. These seem to be very effective programs in that these officers have been able to identify and intervene in a youth's problems before they ahve mushroomed into violent or disruptive behavior. Thus, these programs have had an impact on reducing crime and violence in the schools.

- Started in Flint, Michigan in 1958 with a grant from a private foundation, the officer is seen as a counselor and a resource person who can recommend youth to other agencies. The officer who is presently in charge of this program described Flint, Michigan as a "General Motors" industrial town, second largest city in Michigan. It should be having as many problems as Detroit has. However, it is the officer's belief that the police-school liaison program has had a major part in controlling the level of violence and vandalism in their schools.

- Many of these programs, such as in Arlington, Virginia, seem to be limited only by agency imagination. Officers in Virginia have developed youth law courses to be used in their schools, they mediate crimes; counsel youth and their parents, attend athletic events and have organized summer youth camps.

There are many other types of police-school coordinated activities which are conducted on an ad hoc basis, such as the "Officer Friendly" program, which is designed mainly for the elementary age school children.

- The "OFFICER FRIENDLY" program originated in 1966 as a cooperative effort between the Chicago Board of Education, the Chicago Police Department, and a private foundation. "Officer Friendly" works toward the establishment of good rapport between the primary grade child and the uniformed police officer. The program is designed to develop more positive attitudes toward police and would be considered an early delinquency prevention model. The program in general stresses rules of safety, good citizenship, respect for laws.

elatively few schools have close working relationships with the juvenile court or the probation department. Programs coordinated with the district attorney's office or with aftercare services are almost non-existent. It seems that the further a juvenile enters the juvenile justice system, the fewer coordination efforts that component of the system has with the schools. (See Transparency 7.5.6)

There are some outreach programs. For example:

- A position, entitled "School-probation officer" was located in the schools in Fairfax, Virginia, in 1973, during a period of severe problems within the school setting. The purpose of this position is to provide liaison between the school and the probation department regarding student who are presently on probation and to identify potential delinquents.

- Fairfax has expanded on this coordinated relationship by developing several alternative schools and a tutoring service. These alternative services are available to all residents of their county. The court provides the facilities and the school provides the needed staff.

- Fresno, California has developed several probation-school liaison programs.

    - "OPERATION STAR" is school based with two probation officers working with intensive caseloads of juveniles at the ninth grade level. They have offices at the schools and counsel during the afternoons and provide structured activities in the afternoon.

    - In another program two probation officers were assigned to act as mediators, facilitators, planners and advocates between the probation department and the schools.

Many of the coordinated efforts between the school and the court seem to have been initiated by active and interested juvenile court judges.

- In 1977, the juvenile court judge in Toledo, Ohio requested one of his staff to research the issue of restitution as a possible juvenile court order. The judge indicated that possibly the active use of such a sanction, restitution orders, juvenile crime may be reduced. He was particularly interested in affecting their problem of vandalism in the parks and schools. The judge's staff person had developed a "restitution program" to facilitate compliance with restitution orders. This program has several restitution counselors assigned half of their time on job sites, where the juveniles are working and half of their time at the schools working with problems and issues relating to the juveniles in the program.

- As a result of the "restitution program", a member of the school security staff has been assigned to provide liaison with the juvenile court regarding restitution claims for damage at the schools.

These combined programs, emphasizing follow-up and accountability on the part of the court, the school, and the juvenile offender has had a dramatic effect on vandalism in their schools.

Also in Toledo, Ohio is a coalition of public agencies who meet on a monthly basis to work on the problem of truancy, called "Truancy Task Force". The idea for this task force was a result of the institution of a new judge. The judge was particularly interested in truancy and low level crime. He believes that if you deal with lesser offenses, you may impact the potential for more serious offenses. This task force has now developed a comprehensive truancy policy which details the responsibility of each agency the school, the truancy officer, the child welfare agency, and the courts in regard to the truancy issue. Action can not be taken at the next level of intervention without all of the defined measures be taken, i.e., testing for learning disabilities, eye problems, etc. being completed at the school level.

The program in Toledo, Ohio is just one of many multi-agency coordinated efforts occurring throughout the United States. (See Transparency 7.5.7)

- There is the David V. Kenyon Juvenile Justice Center in Los Angeles, California in which the representatives from the schools, police, sheriff, probation and other social agencies are located at the same location. The purpose is to reduce delinquency by use of the "team approach" towards coordinated efforts to provide alternatives for juveniles, develop plans and attempt to reduce alienation of youth and public.

Some of these multi-agency coordinated efforts are at the state level.

- In Maryland, there is a concerted effort to develop a state network consisting of the Secretary of Education/Health/Human Resources/ and Mental Hygiene so that they may spirit the idea of networking to their personnel and to the local level. The purpose is to develop comprehensive and coordinated delinquency prevention programs.

As you can see, there is no one model for interagency programs. Most of these programs developed by the school and the juvenile justice systems are for the purposes of prevention rather than control. Their impact on the problem of violence and vandalism in the schools is not of an immediate nature and necessitates planning, commitment and a coordinated effort on the part of both agencies.

We now reach the question of how to develop interagency programs. All interagency programs need effective leadership to overcome the barriers related to the relinquishment of some of the agencies "turf". Any attempt to consolidate or coordinate activities is bound to raise apprehensions regarding the delineation of roles and responsibilities.

In addition to these barriers, some people are overwhelmed by the apparent complexity of coordinating efforts. A formula that might be kept in mind is "The key words in the formula are communicate, evaluate, demonstrate, escalate, and re-create."[5] In creating new linkages, it is important for agencies to identify their needs and to communicate them to each other. Communication can define possibilities for linkages between or among agencies. When these opportunities are outlined as strategies and programs, they must be evaluated in terms of gains and sacrifices each agency will make. The potential gains must often be demonstrated on a tentative basis. Small, successful projects enable the agencies to develop confidence in their new arrangements. Escalation should not be attempted until smaller successes are experienced. Finally, positive interactions can provide the basis for other creative programs.

Interagency programs are designed to make better use of existing resources through sharing, and it is designed to redistribute tasks and functions so that they may be performed by the agency which is best able to deliver the service. Through coordinated effort, interagency programs have been able to impact the problem of violence and vandalism in the school.

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5. Ringers, Joseph Jr. Creating Interagency Projects. Community Collaborations. Charlottesville, Virginia, 1977. p. 34.

National School Resource Network

National Center • 5530 Wisconsin Avenue, N.W., Washington, DC • (301) 654-2550 • Toll Free (800) 638-8090
Eastern Regional Center • 53 Bay State Road, Boston, MA 02215 • (617) 353-4554
Southern Regional Center • 54 5th Street N.E., Atlanta, GA 30308 • (404) 872-0296
Midwestern Regional Center • 6 North Michigan Avenue, Suite 1706, Chicago, IL 60602 • (312) 782-5787
Western Regional Center • 18 Professional Center Parkway, San Rafael, CA 94903 • (415) 472-1227

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R.7.5.4

Technical Assistance Bulletin

Elements of a School-Police Liaison Officer Program

Summary

School-police cooperative programs, aimed at improving the effectiveness of both organizations, typically involve making law enforcement officers available to junior and senior high schools to (1) perform law enforcement duties, (2) improve the image of law enforcement officers, (3) assist in the resolution of school problems, and (4) provide education and sometimes counseling for the school's population about law enforcement and criminal justice systems. Officers can serve in many different capacities, depending upon the goals and objectives of individual programs and the needs of the specific community. Some programs are more academically oriented, while others are strictly "police work." Whatever the type of program, the goal is always improved police-school system relations.

The Problem

Problems of juvenile violence, vandalism, and crime in the school setting are of concern to educators and law enforcement officials alike, yet in many cases, these two public institutions most concerned with issues of crime and education have no clear lines of communication, if they are on "speaking terms" at all. There often appears to be a mutual mistrust between schools and police, and a great deal of misunderstanding of roles. While this conflict continues, the problems of truancy, attacks and assaults, trespassing, and vandalism can only escalate and result in students, faculty, police, and the community at large becoming more frustrated and more likely to become "victims."

It seems apparent that a need exists for effective school-police cooperation. For many schools and communities the problem lies in a lack of an articulated program model. How can issues of territoriality be solved? What line of reporting and accountability is most appropriate? What are the appropriate roles for law enforcement officers in the school system? What are the essential components of a liaison program?

The Solution

A combination of school system and law enforcement department resources are needed for a successful program. Moreover, coordination of these resources into a truly collaborative effort is imperative. Necessary are agreement on program parameters, assignment of responsibilities, and description in detail of the roles of all participants--especially on the limitations of these roles.

The Agreement

School-police programs can take on various forms and concentrate on a number of different themes. Although certain general patterns may become evident in a review of liaison programs, the specifics should be available to both parties in a written agreement. This document is typically called a memorandum of understanding or memorandum of agreement. The information contained in this document, similar to a contract, dictates the program's scope and purpose in addition to delegating responsibilities.

Such a memorandum should include details on--

Prepared under Grant #79JS-AX-0019 from the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention, Law Enforcement Assistance Administration, U.S. Department of Justice

Points of view or opinions in this document are those of the NSRN and do not necessarily represent the official position or policies of the U.S. Department of Justice.

- The school and police force involvement
- The number of officers
- The hours of duty at the school
- How officers will be selected and assigned
- Officer dress
- A description of responsibilities (usually in the form of a job description)
- The responsibilities of school personnel involved
- The rate of pay and who pays.

Other important issues that should be addressed are on-campus arrest and interrogation procedures, search and seizure issues, lines of authority, and similar topics. A sample memorandum from the Seattle Public Schools is attached. (Further information is available in Vestermark and Blauvelt, 1978, pp. 64-67.)

The following sections, which describe the program components of a school-police liaison program, will indicate the various areas of school-police interaction and cooperation. However, specified program components should not be regarded as rigid, for programs will necessarily vary depending on community needs.

Component 1: Law Enforcement

School-police liaison officers are universally considered first and foremost law enforcement officials. They are always expected to respond to matters requiring law enforcement attention and carry accredited department identification with them at all times. Although the school should be considered the officers' primary station (if it is a full-time post) when situations require full mobilization of department forces, liaison officers are expected to respond immediately.

Liaison officers' schedules are one of three types: (1) full-time, everyday duties, (2) rotating duty between several schools, or (3) occasional visits for special programs and presentations. The first is the arrangement most often found. Officers report to assigned schools every day, usually before the students arrive, and leave after students have left for the day. Officers have planned activities and classes, but they are also responsible for monitoring halls, handling trespassers, and supervising disturbances. The officer is also required to attend special school events, such as PTA meetings, school dances, and athletic events--in order to monitor these events from a law enforcement perspective. In addition, the officer may be asked to attend activities and sporting competitions outside his or her jurisdiction as a police or sheriff's officer. Typically he or she may do so, but as a regular school staff member (in recognition of the statutory limitations of law enforcement officers).

Of the remaining two types of scheduling, the rotating-duty type is usually found at the junior high school level, and the occasional-visit type is most likely either for elementary school "Officer Friendly" programs or for presenting special topics (such as drug abuse laws) at all levels.

Component 2: Model/Image

Perhaps the most important, and innovative, responsibility of a liaison officer is that of positive role model. In an effort to improve student-officer relations, it is expected that liaison staff will work to build and maintain a rapport with the student body. The most effective way to accomplish this appears to be by officers making themselves accessible to students and being of help whenever possible. Officers are often chosen based on sincere interest in youth as well as interpersonal abilities which make them particularly able to be good role models.

Officers will usually be in plain clothes (except for extracurricular events where they appear in their police capacity), and typically they do not carry weapons during the school day. They are expected to conduct themselves as representatives of their law enforcement department, understanding that their actions will reflect on the department. Officers can be instrumental in improving community attitudes towards law officials.

Component 3: School Assistance

At times liaison officers will be requested to lend investigatory skills to aid in the resolution of school problems. The officer may assist school administrators in investigations which are either criminal or noncriminal in nature. He or she does not enforce school rules per se; however, he or she is an available resource, especially in a crisis situation. Liaison staff will always maintain close contact with their department and are required to complete appropriate paper work for criminal investigations.

Another form of assistance can be seen in Officer Friendly and Adopt-A-Cop programs. Usually found at the elementary school level, these programs involve occasional visits by police officers to discuss such topics as good citizenship and drug and alcohol abuse. Officers are also available to answer young students' questions about issues on their minds. The atmosphere is designed to be friendly and informative.

Component 4: Education and Counseling

Officers are also educators--and sometimes counselors. School staff, students, and parents should find officers available to explain law enforcement procedures and to assist them in an understanding of the criminal and juvenile justice systems.

Liaison officers will lecture to classes and participate in school activities related to law enforcement and justice issues. They also may arrange for guest speakers (experts from the county sheriff's office or police department, public safety division, local government, etc.) to present information about and/or conduct tours of their respective agencies. Officers can also be considered resource persons and make themselves available (in some programs on a 24-hour basis) to school staff, students, and parents whenever they may be of assistance.

Although most programs appear to discourage officers from acting in a counseling role (because of possible conflict of interest), some programs emphasize this component or are entirely developed around it.

If officers do work in a counseling capacity, it is always coordinated with school guidance staff and programs. When it is deemed necessary, officers can counsel students about law-related and citizenship concerns. The officer may also become a valuable resource, for example, by appropriately referring students to the juvenile justice system. At (or before) this time, the officer may confer with the student; the result generally being that the student gains more trust in the justice system and a better understanding of what is happening. Also, liaison staff may wish to become involved in an advocacy capacity monitoring students' progress in the juvenile justice system.

Additionally, the counseling and/or education component of a program is also responsible for designing and implementing prevention programs in an effort to reduce the need for police intervention. Crime and delinquency are best dealt with before they occur.

Results

No systematic, formal evaluations of police-school programs were discovered by the writers of this bulletin. However, one program coordinator stated there had been a "marked reduction in school-related violent acts and vandalism in county schools." Another reported "noticeably improved community-school-police relations." Programs like these appear to have a synergistic effect, with positive ramifications being felt throughout the local community.

Additionally, better understanding of each organization by the other has in many communities facilitated better collaborative efforts. Improved lines of communication have resulted in quicker resolution of school and local problems as well as an increased effectiveness of both educational and law enforcement programs. The result, a mutually trusting and supportive relationship, is a solid step toward the resolution of the problems of violence and vandalism.

Replication Issues

This program can be adapted to any community with a commitment to and interest in improved police-school relations and cooperative programs, once the nature and extent of desired police involvement in the schools has been determined. Some programs may choose to be more educationally oriented; others prefer the appearance of "police action," although this is not usually advisable. Programs in elementary grades may wish to be "lighter" and adapt themselves to that grade level. In any case, a brief needs-assessment type study should be conducted. This will help educators and police articulate program goals and objectives, which in turn will dictate program components.

There are a number of issues which must then be considered. One is that of officer time required. Obviously, a program being developed in a very stable school district will need less of a law enforcement officer's time than one planned for a more volatile school system with considerable violence and vandalism.

Probably the most difficult issues to resolve is who is going to pay for the program. Our survey has turned up programs funded by police departments, school districts, or jointly by both. It will work either way; however, who pays often determines what kind of program evolves.

The most important issue in the replication of school-police liaison programs are the ability of school and law enforcement officials to come to agreements and work together on a common set of goals. Both agencies must be able to let go of inherent territoriality and "turfdom." Only through true cooperation can programs become successful interfaces between law and education.

Required Resources

Cost, personnel, and equipment requirements will vary depending on the nature of the program. However, necessary expenditures will include: (1) full-time law enforcement salaries for nine months for each officer involved (one officer per high school is suggested, but elementary schools can be covered by one officer), (2) radio equipment and additional supplies (for class presentations), (3) department vehicles and upkeep, and (4) administrative facilities and personnel.

References

This listing of representative programs is by no means a complete listing, but may be useful as a source point for further information.

- School-Police Liaison Program
  Ed Jacobs, Director of Security
  Board of Education
  Administrative Building
  2597 Avery
  Memphis, Tennessee 38112
  (901) 454-5773

- School-Court Liaison Program
  Chuck Rejent, Security Specialist
  Toledo Board of Education
  Manhattan Boulevard & Elm Street
  Room 110
  Toledo, Ohio 43608
  (419) 729-5111

- Officer Friendly Program
  John H. Blalock
  Southern Representative
  Sears Roebuck Foundation 675
  Ponce de Leon Avenue, N.E.
  Atlanta, Georgia 30395
  (404) 885-3707

- Police-School Liaison Program
  Lt. Maurice Regan
  Fresno Police Department
  P.O. Box 1271
  Fresno, California 93715
  (209) 488-1261

- School-Police Liaison Program
  Sgt. Nate Albritton
  Flint City Police Department
  210 East 5th Street
  Flint, Michigan 40582
  (313) 766-7109

- Public-School Liaison Program
  Major G. R. Dillon
  Forsythe County Sheriff Dept.
  P.O. Box 2100
  Hall of Justice Building
  Winston-Salem, NC 27101
  (919) 727-2112

- Police-School Liaison Program
  Lt. William D. Schonnerson
  2639 Nicollet Avenue
  Minneapolis, Minnesota 55408
  (612) 348-6316

- Youth Resource Officer Program
  Sgt. William Jeunette
  Arlington County Police Dept.
  2100 15th Street North
  Arlington, Virginia 22201
  (703) 558-2791

- Police-School Liaison Program
  Edward Muir
  Board of Education Member
  Board of Education
  City of New York
  110 Livingston Street
  Brooklyn, New York 11201

- Police-School Liaison Program
  Jeffery Zaring
  Division of Crisis Prevention
  120 West Market Street, 16th Fl.
  Indianapolis, Indiana 46204
  (317) 633-6940

Additional programs are operating in the following areas: Birmingham, Alabama; Little Rock, Arkansas; Monterey Park,

California; San Jose, California; Newark, Delaware; Wilmington, Delware; Broward County, Florida; DeKalb, Georgia; Boston, Massachusetts; Kansas City, Missouri; Salem, Oregon; Hampton, Virginia; Norfolk, Virginia; and Seattle, Washington.

International City Management Association. "Police-Community Relations." *Management Information Service Report* 9, No. 5 (May 1977): 185-194.

Kirschner, M., and Muir, E. *The Police School Liaison Program in the New York City Public Schools*. New York: Board of Education, 1973.

Rubel, R.J. *The Role of Police in the Schools*. Washington, D.C.: National Institute for Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention (LEAA), Grant No. 76-NI-99-0077, 1976.

Vestermark, S.D., and Blauvelt, P.D. *Controlling Crime in the Schools: A Complete School Security Handbook for Administrators*. West Nyack, N.Y.: Parker Publishing Company, Inc., 1978.

Wachter, D. H. *A Report of Programs Designed to Prevent or Remedy Problems of Discipline and Disruption in the Delaware Schools*. Wilmington, Del.: Delaware Department of Public Instruction, Feb. 16, 1978.

ATTACHMENT

SAMPLE MEMORANDUM OF UNDERSTANDING REGARDING SCHOOL-POLICE RELATIONS SEATTLE CITY SCHOOLS

The Seattle Public Schools and the Seattle Police Department have enjoyed a good relationship over many years as a result of their mutual cooperation in resolving problems. However, there have existed for the past several years some areas where appropriate roles and necessary actions are undefined, unclear, or where changing circumstances have necessitated changes in the prescribed relationship.

The following statements have been developed jointly by Seattle Public Schools and the Juvenile Division of the Seattle Police Department.

A. The general basis for the relationship between the Seattle Public Schools and Seattle Police are those prescribed in detail in Guidelines for Dealing with Emergencies, as revised. These Guidelines are available in every school and are generally well-known by all building administrators.

B. School administrative personnel will cooperate with police officers and provide assistance when the officers' entry to the building is based upon:

   1. A warrant for the arrest of an individual
   2. Parental permission
   3. Presence of a Juvenile Division officer normally assigned to that building.

C. It is extremely important that police officers notify the principal, or other building administrator in charge, upon entering the building. The principal alone has control of the building and complete knowledge of the situation in the building at any given time. His foreknowledge of police presence in the building can do much to facilitate their operation and still prevent escalation of an existing situation.

D. In view of recent Supreme Court decisions, access to student records is more restricted than it formerly has been. With the proper court order, pertinent student record information will be made available to police officers as required. However, in the absence of a court order, and upon proper identification of the police officer to school authorities, the school will provide the officer with the address, telephone number, parents' names, birth date of the student, and will verify attendance at the school.

E. With reference to the matter of interrogation of students by police officials, the Seattle School District encourages the police to interrogate citizens of student age in their home. However, the school will permit the interrogation of students by police provided the police officer has permission of these students' parents to conduct the interrogation. In the event either of the above conditions cannot be met, the student will be made available to the juvenile officer or officers assigned to that school for interrogation in the presence of a school official. The role of the school official is that of observer. Any questions about the interview or any concern rasied in the mind of the school official as a result of the interview should be referred to the General Counsel.

F. The situation in most urban schools, especially secondary schools, is a delicately balanced one which can be disrupted in major proportion by certain incidents. On occasion it may be necessary that uniformed officers pursue a suspect into a school building. The need for pursuit must be weighted against possible consequences of such pursuit. Discretion should always be used. If the offender is identifiable, and the need for apprehension is not immediate, apprehension may be deferred. In instances where suspects are pursued into school building, the officer should be prepared to show that such pursuit was reasonable.

G. In most circumstances, the building principal's contact with the police will be made initially to the School Security Office of Seattle Public Schools, which will in turn notify the police if such action is warranted.

With regard to those circumstances where a sizeable police unit is called in, two concerns should be recognized:

1. Sometimes in the interval between notification of police and their arrival, the problem situation may change to such an extent that it may be preferable to refrain from overt police action. Every effort will be made by schoool authorities to exercise extreme good judgment in requesting mobilization of police forces.

2. When the police are requested to take over a situation, they naturally are the decision makers, but the building principal is nevertheless required to convey to those authorities his own best assessment of the situation. This is intended as advisory in nature in order to convey information regarding nuances in the situation which may not be apparent to the police.

Source: Seattle Public Schools; Seattle, Washington

Juvenile Justice System Bibliography

Brodsky, Stanley L., and Knudten, Richard D. Strategies for Delinquency Prevention in the Schools. University of Alabama, 1973.

Community Relations Service, U.S. Department of Justice, Law Enforcement Assistance Administration. Conference: School Disruptions: Tips for Educators and Police (brochure).

Krajick, Kevin. "On Patrol in the 'Blackboard Jungle': Are Police in High Schools Protectors or Intruders?" Police Magazine, May 1978, pp. 48-54.

McIntyre, Benjamin Broox. Skills for Impact: Voluntary Action in Criminal Justice. Institute of Government, University of Georgia and Association of Junior Leagues.

National Advisory Committee on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals. Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention: Report on the Task Force on Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention. December 1976.

National Institute of Education. Violent Schools--Safe Schools. December 1977.

Report of the Subcommittee To Investigate Juvenile Delinquency. Challenge for the Third Century: Education in a Safe Environment--Final Report on the Nature and Prevention of School Violence and Vandalism. February 1977.

Ringers, Joseph, Jr. Creating Interagency Projects. Charlottesville, Va.: Community Collaborators, 1977.

Rubel, Robert J. "The Role of Police in the Schools." (Unpublished paper developed under Visiting Fellowship Grant, NIJJDP/LEAA, 1976.)

Scherer, Jacqueline. "School-Community Linkages: Avenues of Alienation or Socialization." In School Crime and Disruption: Prevention Models. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, U.S. Government Printing Office, June 1978.

Course 7 - The Community as a Problem-Solving Resource
Module

Audiovisual Reference Material

SOLUTIONS TO VANDALISM

This film, intended for use by educators, police community relations departments, and civic organizations, shows what several communities across the country have done about the problem of vandalism. The film depicts how six different communities have confronted willful destruction and violence in their areas. Local leaders have taken the initiative in each of the communities and found solutions to vandalism -- in large cities like Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, where school children are involved in vandalism patrols; in Seattle, Washington, where a student vandalism committee conducts hearings on cases of vandalism; and in Los Angeles, California, where a school principal involved parents and teachers in an antivandalism campaign. In smaller urban areas, such as Billings, Montana, students were given a chance to work in the cafeteria, office, and library in order to instill in them a sense of responsibility. The suburban area of Wauwatosa, Wisconsin, conducted a vandalism awareness program, where older students talked to the younger students about vandalism. In Berrien County, Michigan, a peer group counseling program is used to counteract vandalism. These programs have yielded definite cost savings as well as less tangible but perhaps even more significant results, such as diverting youth from destructive pursuits toward productive activity. Possibly the most important aspect of these programs is the fact that the solutions were not handed down from Washington or state capitols, but were developed in the affected communities by local people themselves. Rural, urban, and suburban communities have each been able to devise innovative programs to solve their own vandalism problems. The film is intended to spark enthusiasm for community programs to fight vandalism.

Color Film, 16mm, 8mm, and Videocassette, 35 minutes
Purchase: $400
Rental Fee: $40
Distributor: Mary Hanson
Perrennial Education, Inc.
477 Roger Williams
P.O. Box 855 Ravinia
Highland Park, IL 60035
Telephone: (312) 433-1610

Previewed by NSRN staff.

BRIEFING FOR PARENTS, VOLUMES I AND II

The materials are intended to assist school personnel in communicating with parents. The readings and audio-visual experiences provide motivation, encouragement, reasons and ideas on how parents can support their children's growth and learning.
Describer critique: The individual materials are well planned and designed to collectively produce an informative and helpful guide on effective ways of caregiving. In simple language, devoid of jargon, the developers have distilled key themes from research-drawn knowledge. Intended for inservice and preservice for teachers, parents, and administrators who are interested in bringing the home, school, and community closer together. All grade levels.

Multimedia
Purchase: $88.86
Distributor: National Education Association
Order Department
The Academic Building
Saw Mill Road
West Haven, CT 06516

Not previewed by NSRN staff.

THE PARENT CRUNCH

(Number 1 in the 5-part series: THE HEART OF TEACHING)

Communication problems between parents and teachers are highlighted.
Describer critique: This well-written and performed drama successfully draws in the viewer to the complexities and tensions of misunderstandings between teacher and parent. Offering no simple pat solutions, the film asks the viewer to reach his own conclusions.
Intended for inservice teachers needing to understand themselves and their emotional responses to the daily experiences of their professional lives. All grade levels.

Film, 16 mm, and Videocassette
Purchase: $250 (16mm film)
Purchase: $175 (videocassette)
Distributor: Agency For Instructional Television
1111 W. 17th Street
Bloomington, IN 47401

Previewed by NSRN staff.

ASK ME DON'T TELL ME

Shows white, black, oriental, and Spanish-speaking teenage gangs working as volunteers in the youth for service organization in San Francisco.

Mosk, then Attorney General of California, comments on the need for society to give juvenile delinquents a feeling of worth.

B&W Film, 22 minutes, 1960
Distributor: University of California
Berkeley, CA

Not previewed by NSRN staff.

A SENSE OF COMMUNITY

Community education programs and processes are described and an overview of community services is provided. Citizen cooperation is covered, including the community council. Emphasis is placed on the impact of programs and processes on the lives of community members. The story is presented through statements by community members speaking about their own experiences. A discussion guide is also provided.

Color Film, 28 minutes
Purchase: $210
Rental Available
Publisher/Producer: Charles Stewart Mott Foundation
Distributor: National Community Education Association
1017 Avon Street
Flint, MI 48503
Telephone: (313) 238-0463

Previewed by NSRN staff.

PLAY IT COOL

This film presents different ways of handling typical situations which a police officer may face daily, e.g., approaching a group of teen-agers, stopping a car, etc. Particularly useful for a police training program or school liaison program.

Color Film, 20 minutes, 1972
Rental Fee: $16.00
Distributor: Correctional Service of Minnesota
1427 Washington Avenue South
Minneapolis, MN 55454
Toll Free#: (800) 328-4737
Minnesota residents call
collect: (612) 339-7227

Not previewed by NSRN staff.

THE BLACKBOARD JUMBLE

Sergeant Bruce Fynan, a detective with the Los Angeles County Sheriff's Department, tells of his experience with learning-disabled students as he drives to a high school. There he arrests a youth, advises him of his rights, and takes him into custody.

Gabriel Kaplan -- as himself, not the "Mr. Kotter" of TV fame -- defines learning disabilities and concludes, "For a kid with a learning disability, school can be a nightmare of failure -- a 'Blackboard Jumble'."

From Sergeant Fynan we learn that he has had training within the Department for recognizing learning disabilities.

Kaplan points out that the key to rehabilitating the learning-disabled youth is to give him the special education he needs.

Judge David Kenyon of the Juvenile Justice Center serving the Watts District tells how they approach the problem of evaluating and meeting the individual needs of each person. They have an Intake Assessment Panel that includes representatives from Los Angeles Police Department and the Los Angeles City School District. A social worker from the Department of Community Development later does follow-up on the diverted cases. Result: an 88% success rate. We see the panel at work in the re-creation of a case.

Judge Kenyon concludes: "There are many youngsters with learning disability who never get in trouble with the law. But there are so many with learning disability who do get in trouble -- if we could identify them early and work on the problem earlier, I'm sure -- I'm just sure -- that it will have a definite impact on the crime rate."

Kaplan states that both delinquency and learning disability occur many times more frequently among boys than among girls. He then introduces the Scott-Scudder Reception Center in Saugus, an intake and diagnostic facility for delinquent boys operated by the Los Angeles Probation Department.

Larry Springer, a teacher, and Roberta Savage, a Special Education teacher there, tell about the tests used to diagnose the learning and behavioral problems. They are especially interested in discovering the individual's preferred modes of learning -- a key to remediation.

Individual assessment follows the student to his temporary and more permanent classrooms. At Scott-Scudder the students use the "All Win Reading Program". This, or other systems which are self-pacing and give immediate feedback of correct answers are recommended. Relevance is a key to success in all subjects studied.

In six months the students gain about three grade levels in reading.

THE BLACKBOARD JUMBLE (Continued)

Kaplan gives a check-list of clues to learning disabilities which come in clusters in most cases:

Short attention span
Difficulty following oral instructions
Trouble saying a word until someone says it first
Disorganized
Clumsy
Overactive
Underactive
Poor reader
Poor eye-hand coordination
Quick temper
Overimpulsive

He concludes with a review of the student's rights to individual education.

Color Film, 23 minutes
Purchase: $360
Rental Fee: $40 per week
Distributor: Lawren Productions, Inc.
P.O. Box 666
Mendocino, CA 95460
Telephone: (707) 937-0536

Previewed by NSRN staff.

YOUTH AND THE LAW

Shows police working with juvenile offenders but also with mental health and welfare specialists as well as other community groups to guide youthful energies into constructive channels and to prevent delinquency.

B/W Film, 36 minutes, 1963
Purchase: $285
Rental Fee: $18.00
Distributor: International Film Bureau, Inc.
332 South Michigan Avenue
Chicago, IL 60604
Telephone: (312) 427-4545

Previewed by NSRN staff.

UNDER THE LAW

A new concept in legal education programming...Two hard-hitting film series let youngsters see, feel and participate in real-life crime situations to understand the consequences of committing a crime. They see different sides of the law...through the eyes of defendant, victim, bystander, police officer, prosecutor and judge...to learn how the legal process serves justice, protects society.

An exciting stop-action teaching technique freezes the film at crucial points and asks students: WHAT WOULD YOU DO? This makes them feel, think and discuss their reactions. Then the film illustrates how the law administers justice based on the legal and human circumstances of each case.

Discussion leaders' guides for both series motivate classroom discussion at freeze-film segments, explain legal points in clear, simple language, and suggest related learning activities.

UNDER THE LAW was made possible through a Discretionary Grant from the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration (U.S. Dept. of Justice). National Education Institute coordinated the film series and served as funding co-sponsor. The National District Attorneys Association served as legal resource for the series.

VANDALS
(UNDER THE LAW, SERIES II)

Demonstrates the senseless, self-defeating act of vandalism...and how convicted juveniles can use probation as a positive experience. Teenagers Ken and Mindy vent their frustration and anger by vandalizing their school. A Juvenile Court Referee orders them to undergo psychiatric examinations, then places them on probation -- Mindy working with blind children, Ken helping a clean-up crew. Each youngster takes a different view of probatio WHAT WOULD YOU DO if your friend wanted to smash windows? HOW WOULD YOU DECIDE as referee to deal with Ken and Mindy?

Color Film, 17 minutes
Purchase: $275
Distributor: Walt Disney Educational Media Co.
500 South Buena Vista Street
Burbank, CA 91521
Telephone: (213) 841-2000
Toll Free: (800) 423-2555

Previewed by NSRN staff.

JUVENILE JUSTICE: WHY CAN'T I GO HOME NOW?

JUVENILE JUSTICE: WHY CAN'T I GO HOME NOW is an excellent way to open discussions of the many complex segments of the Juvenile Justice System with community groups, with juveniles themselves, and with the members of your staff.

The film explores the philosophy and purpose of a modern and progressive juvenile court system. The relationships and roles of the various members of the system are examined. Filmed on location in the San Diego County Juvenile Court and Juvenile Detention Facility, the film follows a juvenile girl from her arrest through the ultimate disposition of her case.

Color Film, 28 minutes
Rental Fee: $25
Producer: Harper and Row
Distributor: Correctional Service of Minnesota
1427 Washington Avenue South
Minneapolis, MN 55454
Toll Free #: (800) 328-4737
Minnesota residents call
collect: (612) 339-7227

Not previewed by NSRN staff.

HOPE FOR KIDS: INNOVATIONS IN JUVENILE JUSTICE

This new film looks at several of the innovative community programs which are being developed to keep kids out of the juvenile justice system, and thus out of juvenile prisons. It explores the successes and failures of such programs as group homes, half-way houses, youth service bureaus, school youth development projects, as well as school-within-a-school programs. Narrated by Phil Jones, CBS Correspondent, this film gives insight as well as inspiration for community corrections programs.

Color Film, 29 minutes, 1974
Purchase: $350
Rental Fee: $22
Producer: Correctional Service of Minnesota
Distributor: Correctional Service of Minnesota
1427 Washington Avenue South
Minneapolis, MN 55454
Toll Free #: (800) 328-4737
Minnesota residents call
collect: (612) 339-7227

Not previewed by NSRN staff.

CHILDREN IN TROUBLE: A NATIONAL SCANDAL

A documentary film which shows the dehumanizing effect of the juvenile justice system.

Film, 28 minutes, 1974
Purchase: $260
Distributor: Film-Makers, Inc.
400 N. MIchigan Avenue
Chicago, IL 60611
Telephone: (312) 644-7444

Not previewed by NSRN staff.

Course 7

The Community as a Problem-Solving Resource

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This course as a whole was written and coordinated by Ms. Mary Volgyes. Module 7.3 was written by Ms. Katherine Crockett and Module 7.5 was written by Ms. Laurel Varnon. Ms. Ann Holoka provided consulting and writing assistance, and Ms. Terri Hausmann also contributed to the modules. Ongoing review was provided by Ms. Kamer Davis and Dr. Charles Kehoe.

Resource Request Form

Please send me the following *National School Resource Network* Resource Materials:

Name ______________________ **Phone** ______________

Title ______________________ **School** ______________________

Address ____
(Street)

____
(City) (State) (Zip)

Course Ref. I-D	*Title*	*No. Copies*